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CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION

Initial reports of States parties

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

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*These documents are available in English at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat and can be consulted in the Offices of the Branch for the Advancement of Women.

INTRODUCTION

This report constitutes the initial report of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland as required under Article 18 of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. It has been compiled by the Human Rights Unit of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office on the basis of contributions received from the government Departments involved in the implementation of the provisions of the Convention.

In accordance with the "General Guidelines Regarding the Form and Contents of Reports received from States Parties under Article 18 of the Convention" (CEDAW/C/7 August 1983) adopted by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, the report is divided into two parts: Part I describes the framework within which the Convention is implemented, the legal and other measures adopted and the institutions established to give the Convention force, and the means to promote and ensure the full development and advancement of women; Part II gives specific information on the implementation of each of the provisions of the Convention. The text is supported by a compilation of selected statistics on social trends within the United Kingdom (Annex A) taken from the 1986 edition of "Social Trends", an annual publication of the Central Statistical Office produced by Her Majesty's Stationary Office (ISBN 0-11 620151-7).

May 1987

In the preparation of this report, the relevant Government Departments took into account material made available to them from non-governmental sources in relation to the build-up to the Nairobi World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women (1985) and the adoption of the Forward Looking Strategies, and subsequently.

In addition, the Foreign and Commonwealth Office organised a seminar in February 1987 for non-governmental organisations to discuss the content of the report, the reporting process and the role of non-governmental organisations in this process. Of the 120 organisations invited some 85 attended. The seminar also proved a useful means to introduce representatives from the non-governmental organisations to a wider range of officials from the various government Departments responsible for women's issues and the preparation of the United Kingdom's report, and so establish contacts at working level as appropriate to their organisation's particular concerns where they might not have already done so.

While the primary aim of the seminar was to discuss the non-governmental organisations' role in the reporting process and to continue the dialogue between them and the government, not to discuss general policy issues, the seminar was also useful in identifying these areas of prime concern to the non-governmental organisations. The main points raised by non-governmental organisations on which they considered more action was required were as follows below.

On general equality issues, there was a desire to see more women judges appointed to enable women to play an equal part in interpreting the law; the amendment of the practice of women being subject to their husbands for tax purposes; and greater measures of positive discrimination to promote the advancement of equality.

On finance, employment and benefits issues, concern was expressed at the following: the differences between the treatment afforded men and women by the present superannuation system; the assistance available to women carers; the availability of child-care facilities; the proposals to abolish the universal maternity grant in favour of a higher means-tested payment for the very poor; the time taken to process complaints through the industrial tribunals and the difficult choices facing women who had been discriminated against.

In addition, there was a desire to see greater flexibility of working hours to enable true equal employment opportunities for women; more employment protection for part-time workers 95% of whom are women; maternity rights for women working in small businesses; efforts to make the media take the subjects of sex-stereotyping and sexual harassment seriously; and more refresher courses for women who wished to return to a profession after a break of some years.

On public appointments, it was generally thought that, in appointing a person to public positions, due weight should be given to the qualifications of running a home and voluntary work and to the need to train women in self-confidence to encourage and enable them to participate in public life.

On education, there was a desire for the creation of a non discriminatory attitude especially at the early, attitude-forming ages, to provide education authorities with adequate resources to eliminate sex-stereotyping in schools and to run training programmes in ways and at times to enable women to attend. Concern was expressed at the problems facing overseas women students

On health, a number of points were raised: the need for adequate nutrition for women in the poorest social groups during pregnancy and lactation and training for medical practitioners in the special medical needs of women. The importance of routine breast and cervical cancer screening was underlined and concern was expressed at the under-representation of women in the senior levels of the National Health Service.

Most of these concerns are already being addressed by the government, as shown in Part II of this report and the Ministerial Group on Women's Issues (see Part I) will be considering some of the issues and whether and when progress is practicable. However, there are other areas where progress is less likely in the immediate future either because there is no consensus on the best way forward (eg the reformation of the tax system) because adequate resources are not available (eg elimination of discrimination for all social benefits), or because the elimination of discrimination would disadvantage a significant number of women (eg pensions).

C.N.108.1986.TREATIES-4 (Depositary Notification)

CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN ADOPTED BY THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED NATIONS ON 18 DECEMBER 1979

RATIFICATION BY THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

The Secretary-General of the United Nations, acting in his capacity as depositary, communicates the following:

On 7 April 1986, the instrument of ratification of the above-mentioned Convention by the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, was deposited with the Secretary-General.

The instrument of ratification specifies that the said Convention is ratified in respect of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, British Virgin Islands, Falkland Islands, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, and Turks and Caicos Islands.

Upon deposit of the said instrument of ratification the United Kingdom made the following declarations and reservations concerning on one hand the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and on the other hand the territories on behalf of which the Convention was also ratified:

(Original: English)

A. **ON BEHALF OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND:**

(a) The United Kingdom understands the main purpose of the Convention, in the light of the definition contained in Article 1, to be the reduction, in accordance with its terms, of discrimination against women, and does not therefore regard the Convention as imposing any requirement to repeal or modify any existing laws, regulations, customs or practices which provide for women to be treated more favourably than men, whether temporarily or in the longer term; the United Kingdom's undertakings under Article 4, paragraph 1, and other provisions of the Convention are to be construed accordingly.

(b) The United Kingdom reserves the right to regard the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, the Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978, the Employment Act 1980, the Sex Discrimination (Northern Ireland) Order 1976, the Industrial Relations (No. 2) (Northern Ireland) Order 1976, the Industrial Relations (Northern Ireland) Order 1982, the Equal Pay Act 1970 (as amended) and the Equal Pay Act (Northern Ireland) 1970 (as amended), including the exceptions and exemptions contained in any of these Acts and Orders, as constituting appropriate measures for the practial realisation of the objectives of the Convention in the social and economic circumstances of the United Kingdom, and to continue to apply these provisions accordingly; this reservation will apply equally to any future legislation which may modify or replace the above Acts and Orders on the understanding that the terms of such legislation will be compatible with the United Kingdom's obligations under the Convention.

(c) In the light of the definition contained in Article 1, the United Kingdom's ratification is subject to the understanding that none of its obligations under the Convention shall be treated as extending to the succession to, or possession and enjoyment of, the Throne, the peerage, titles of honour, social precedence or armorial bearings, or as extending to the affairs of religious denominations or orders or to the admission into or-service in the Armed Forces of the Crown.

(d) The United Kingdom reserves the right to continue to apply such immigration legislation governing entry into, stay in, and departure from, the United Kingdom as it may deem necessary from time to time and, accordingly, its acceptance of Article 15 (4) and of the other provisions of the Convention is subject to the provisions of any such legislation as regards persons not at the time having the right under the law of the United Kingdom to enter and remain in the United Kingdom.

ARTICLE 1

With reference to the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and other applicable legislation, the United Kingdom's acceptance of Article 1 is subject to the reservation that the phrase "irrespective of their marital status" shall not be taken to render discriminatory any difference of treatment accorded to single persons as against married persons, so long as there is equality of treatment as between married men and married women and as between single men and single women.

ARTICLE 2

In the light of the substantial progress already achieved in the United Kingdom in promoting the progressive elimination of discrimination against women, the United Kingdom reserves the right, without prejudice to the other reservations made by the United Kingdom, to give effect to paragraphs (f) and (g) by keeping under review such of its laws and regulations as may still embody significant differences in treatment between men and women with a view to making changes to those laws and regulations when to do so would be compatible with essential and overriding considerations of economic policy. In relation to forms of discrimination more precisely prohibited by other provisions of the Convention, the obligations under this Article must (in the case of the United Kingdom) be read in conjunction with the other reservations and declarations made in respect of those provisions including the declarations and reservations of the United Kingdom contained in paragraphs (a) - (d) above.

With regard to paragraphs (f) and (g) of this Article the United Kingdom reserves the right to continue to apply its law relating to sexual offences and prostitution; this reservation will apply equally to any future law which may modifiy or replace it.

ARTICLE 9

The British Nationality Act 1981, which was brought into force with effect from January 1983, is based on principles which do not allow of any discrimination against women within the meaning of Article 1 as regards acquisition, change or retention of their nationality or as regards the nationality of their children. The United Kingdom's acceptance of Article 9 shall not, however, be taken to invalidate the continuation of certain temporary or transitional provisions which will continue in force beyond that date.

The United Kingdom reserves the right to take such steps as may be necessary to comply with its obligations under Article 2 of the First Protocol to the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms signed at Paris on 20 March 1952 and its obligations under paragraph 3 of Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights opened for signature at New York on 19 December 1966, to the extent that the said provisions preserve the freedom of parental choice in respect of the education of children; and reserves also the right not to take any measures which may conflict with its obligation under paragraph 4 of Article 13 of the said Covenant not to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject to the observation of certain principles and standards.

Moreover, the United Kingdom can only accept the obligations under paragraph (c) of Article 10 within the limits of the statutory powers of central Government, in the light of the fact that the teaching cirriculum, the provision of text-books and teaching methods are reserved for local control and are not subject to central Government direction; moreover, the acceptance of the objective of encouraging co-education is without prejudice to the right of the United Kingdom also to encourage other types of education.

ARTICLE 11

The United Kingdom interprets the "right to work" referred to in paragraph 1(a) as a reference to the "right to work" as defined in other human rights instruments to which the United Kingdom is a party, notably Article 6 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 19 December 1966.

The United Kingdom interprets paragraph 1 of Article 11, in the light of the provisions of paragraph 2 of Article 4, as not precluding prohibitions, restrictions or conditions on the employment of women in certain areas, or on the work done by them, where this is considered necessary or desirable to protect the health and safety of women or the human foetus, including such prohibitions, restrictions or conditions imposed in consequence of other international obligations of the United Kingdom; the United Kingdom declares that, in the event of a conflict between obligations under the present Convention and its obligations under the Convention concerning the employment of women on underground work in mines of all kinds (ILO Convention No. 45), the provisions of the last mentioned Convention shall prevail.

The United Kingdom reserves the right to apply all United Kingdom legislation and the rules of pension schemes affecting retirement pensions, survivors' benefits and other benefits in relation to death or retirement (including retirement on grounds of redundancy), whether or not derived from a Social Security scheme.

This reservation will apply equally to any future legislation which may modify or replace such legislation, or the rules of pension schemes, on the understanding that the terms of such legislation will be compatible with the United Kingdom's obligations under the Convention.

The United Kingdom reserves the right to apply the following provisions of United Kingdom legislation concerning the benefits specified:

a) social security benefits for persons engaged in caring for a severely disabled person under section 37 of the Social Security Act 1975 and section 37 of the Social Security (Northern Ireland) Act 1975;

b) increases of benefits for adult dependants under section 44 to 47, 49 and 66 of the Social Security Act 1975 and under sections 44 to 47, 49 and 66 of the Social Security (Northern Ireland) Act 1975;

c) retirement pensions and survivors' benefits under the Social Security Acts 1975 to 1982 and the Social Security (Northern Ireland) Acts 1975 to 1982;

d) family income supplements under the Family Income Supplements Act 1970 and the Family Income Supplements Act (Northern Ireland) 1971.

This reservation will apply equally to any future legislation which may modify or replace any of the provisions specified in sub-paragraphs (a) to (d) above, on the understanding that the terms of such legislation will be compatible with the United Kingdom's obligations under the Convention.

The United Kingdom reserves the right to apply any non-discriminatory requirement for a qualifying period of employment or insurance for the application of the provisions contained in Article 11(2).

ARTICLE 13

The United Kingdom reserves the right, notwithstanding the obligations undertaken in Article 13, or any other relevant article of the Convention, to continue to apply the income tax and capital gains tax legislation which:

i) deems for income tax purposes the income of a married woman living with her husband in a year, or part of a year, of assessment to be her husband's income and not to be her income (subject to the right of the husband and the wife to elect jointly that the wife's earned income shall be charged to income tax as if she were a single woman with no other income); and

ii) requires tax in respect of such income and of chargeable gains accruing to such a married woman to be assessed on her husband (subject to the right of either of them to apply for separate assessment) and consequently (if no such application is made) restricts to her husband the right to appeal against any such assessment and to be heard or to be represented at the hearing of any such appeal; and

iii) entitles a man who has his wife living with him, or whose wife is wholly maintained by him, during the year of assessment to a deduction from his total income of an amount larger than that to which an individual in any other case is entitled and entitles an individual whose total income includes any earned income of his wife to have that deduction increased by the amount of that earned income or by an amount specified in the legislation whichever is the less.

ARTICLE 15

In relation to Article 15, paragraph 2, the United Kingdom understands the term "legal capacity" as referring merely to the existence of a separate and distinct legal personality.

In relation to Article 15, paragraph 3, the United Kingdom understands the intention of this provision to be that only those terms or elements of a contract or other private instrument which are discriminatory in the sense described are to be deemed null and void, but not necessarily the contract or instrument as a whole.

ARTICLE 16

As regards sub-paragraph 1(f) of Article 16, the United Kingdom does not regard the reference to the paramountcy of the interests of the children as being directly relevant to the elimination of discrimination against women, and declares in this connection that the legislation of the United Kingdom regulating adoption, while giving a principal position to the promotion of the children's welfare, does not give to the child's interests the same paramount place as in issues concerning custody over children.

The United Kingdom's acceptance of paragraph 1 of Article 16 shall not be treated as either limiting the freedom of a person to dispose of his property as he wishes or as giving a person a right to property the subject of such a limitation."

CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN: UK INITIAL REPORT

PART ONE

A. GENERAL, SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

A1. GENERAL

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy comprising the countries of England, Wales, Scotland (ie Great Britain) and Northern Ireland, and is a member of the European Community.

Physical Features

Britain constitutes the greater part of the British Isles, a geographical term for a group of islands lying off the north-west coast of mainland Europe. The largest of the islands is Great Britain (the mainlands of England, Wales and Scotland). The next largest comprises Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. Off the southern coast of England is the Isle of Wight and off the extreme south west are the Isles of Scilly; off north Wales is Anglesey. Western Scotland is fringed by small islands and to the north east are the Orkneys and Shetlands. All these have administrative ties with the mainland, but the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands between Great Britain and France are largely self-governing, and are not part of the United Kingdom.

Britain's area is some 244,100 sq km (94,250 sq miles), of which nearly 99 per cent is land and the remainder inland water. This is about the same size as the Federal Republic of Germany, New Zealand or Uganda and half the size of France. It is just under 1,000 km (some 600 miles) from the south coast to the extreme north of Scotland and just under 500 km (some 300 miles) across in the widest part. There are numerous bays and inlets and no place in Britain is as much as 120 km (75 miles) from tidal water.

The seas surrounding the British Isles are shallow, usually less than 90 m (50 fathoms or 300 ft), because the islands lie on the continental shelf. To the north-west along the edge of the shelf the sea floor plunges abruptly from 180 m (some 600 ft) to 900 m (about 3,000 ft). The shallow waters are important because they provide breeding grounds for fish. The warming effect on the air of the North Atlantic current is magnified as its water spreads across the shelf.

Britain has a generally mild and temperate climate. The prevailing winds are south westerly and the weather from day to day is mainly influenced by depressions moving eastwards across the Atlantic. The weather is subject to frequent changes but to few extremes of temperature. It is rarely above 32°C (90°F) or below -10°C (14°F). Near sea-level in the west the mean annual temperature ranges from 8°C (46°F) in the Hebrides to 11°C (52°F) in the extreme south west of England; latitude for latitude it is slightly lower in the east.

The mean monthly temperature in the extreme north, at Lerwick (Shetland), ranges from 3°C (37°F) during the winter (December, January and February) to 11°C (52°F) during the summer (June, July and August); the corresponding figures for the Isle of Wight, in the extreme south, are 5°C (41°F) and 16°C (61°F). The average annual rainfall is more than 1 600 mm (over 60 inches) in the mountainous areas of the west and north but less than 800 mm (30 inches) over central and eastern parts. Rain is fairly well distributed throughout the year, but, on average, March to June are the driest months and September to January the wettest. The distribution of sunshine shows a general decrease from south to north, a decrease from the coast inland, and a decrease with altitude. During May, June and July (the months of longest daylight) the mean daily duration of sunshine varies from five hours in northern Scotland to eight hours in the Isle of Wight; during the months of shortest daylight (November, December and January) sunshine is at a minimum, with an average of an hour a day in northern Scotland and two hours a day on the south coast of England.

England

England is predominantly a lowland country. There are upland regions in the north (the Pennine Chain, the Cumbrian mountains and the Yorkshire moorlands) and in the south west in Devon and Cornwall. For the most part, however, the country is undulating or flat and, in the south, crossed by low ranges of hills including the Cotswolds and the Kent and Sussex Downs. The greatest concentrations of population are in the London and Thames estuary areas, the West Yorkshire and north west industrial cities, the midlands conurbation around Birmingham, the north-east conurbation on the rivers Tyne and Tees, and along the Channel coast. The variety of urban communities has been enhanced by immigrant Huguenots, Jews and other refugees from the European continent, the Irish and more recently people from the Caribbean and the South Asian sub-continent, together with Chinese, Cypriots, Italians and others.

The Church of England, which was separated from the Roman Catholic Church at the Reformation, is the Established Church in England, with privileges balanced by certain duties which it must fulfil: the Sovereign must always be a member of the Church and appoints its two archbishops, its bishops, including the 24 who sit in the House of Lords, and some other senior clergy.

Wales

Wales is a country of hills and mountains with extensive tracts of high plateau and shorter stretches of mountain ranges deeply dissected by river valleys. The highest mountains are in Snowdonia in the north west; the highest peak is Snowdon (1,085 m. 3 560 ft). The lower lying ground is largely confined to the relatively narrow coastal belt and the lower parts of the river valleys. The main areas of settlement are in the southern valleys and coastal areas where two thirds of the population live. The chief urban centres are Cardiff, Swansea, Newport and Wrexham. Wales is a principality; Prince Charles, the heir to the throne, was invested by the Queen with the title of Prince of Wales at Caernarfon Castle in 1969 when he was 20.

The country has its own Welsh language, spoken (according to the 1981 census) by 19 per cent of the population chiefly in the rural north and west. The Welsh name of the country is Cymru. Measures adopted since the 1960s have helped to revive the use of the language, which is of Celtic origin and closely resembles Breton, spoken in Brittany in France. They include recognising the equal validity of Welsh with English in law courts, the encouragement of bilingual education in schools, and the extended use of Welsh for official purposes and in broadcasting. Welsh-language television programmes are transmitted in Wales by Sianel 4 Cymru (Channel 4 Wales).

There is no established church in Wales, the Anglican church having been disestablished in 1920 following decades of pressure from adherents of the more evangelical Methodist and Baptist persuasions. Methodism in particular had spread rapidly in Wales in the eighteenth century, assuming the nature of a popular movement among Welsh speakers and finding strong support later in industrial communities.

Scotland

Scotland may be divided broadly into three areas: the sparsely populated highlands and islands in the north, accounting for just over half the total area of the country; the central lowlands containing three quarters of the population and most of the industrial centres and cultivated farmland; and the Southern Uplands, containing a number of hill ranges which border on England. The highest mountains are the Grampians in the central highlands, with Ben Nevis (1,342 m, 4 406 ft) the highest peak. The chief cities are the main administrative centre Edinburgh, the main industrial centre Glasgow, and the two regional centres Aberdeen and Dundee.

The period from 1750 onwards has been one of considerable and continuous emigration of Scots to England and overseas. The rate slowed markedly in the 1970s as the offshore oil and gas industries developed and there was inward migration to the north east of Scotland. The large outflow of people from Strathclyde has continued, however, though at a lower level than before. In the mid-nineteenth century, as Scotland industrialised rapidly, there was large scale immigration from Ireland, which led to the establishment of sizeable Roman Catholic communities.

The Church of Scotland, which became the established church in 1690, has complete freedom in all matters of doctrine, order and discipline. It is a Protestant church which is Presbyterian in form, that is, governed by a hierarchy of church courts, each of which includes laymen.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland is at its nearest point only 21 km (13 miles) from Scotland. It has a 488 km (303 mile) border in the south and west with the Irish Republic. At its centre lies Lough Neagh, Britain's largest freshwater lake (381 sq km, 147 sq miles). Many of the principal towns lie in valleys leading from the Lough, including the capital, Belfast, which stands at the mouth of the river Lagan. The Mourne Mountains rising sharply in the south east include Slieve Donard, Northern Ireland's highest peak (852 m. 2,796 ft).

Just under two-thirds of Northern Ireland's population are descendants of Scots or English settlers who crossed to north-eastern Ireland mainly in the seventeenth century; most belong to the Protestant faith, and have a traditional loyalty to the maintenance of the union with Great Britain. The remainder, over a third, are Irish in origin and mainly Roman Catholic; many of them are nationalist in political opinion, favouring union with the Irish Republic.

A2. THE SOCIAL FRAMEWORK

The way of life of the people of the United Kingdom has been changing rapidly in the twentieth century. As in many other countries underlying causes include two major wars, a lower birth rate, longer expectation of life a higher divorce rate, widening educational opportunities, technical progress, and a better standard of living.

Population

With 56.6 million people in 1985, Britain ranks about fifteenth in the world in terms of population. This compares with 38.2 million in 1901, about 9 million at the end of the seventeenth century and some 2 million at the end of the eleventh century. Early figures are based on contemporary estimates, but from the beginning of the nineteenth century relatively plentiful and reliable information is available. Most of it comes from two main sources: the regular flow of statistical information based on compulsory registration of births, marriages and deaths, and the censuses taken regularly every ten years since 1801 (because of war there was no census in 1941). The most recent was in April 1981. Statistical information about the population in Britain is probably more complete and detailed than in any other country. After 1975 the population fell slightly for about two years, for the first time (other than in war) since records began, reflecting a temporary decline in the birth rate. Thereafter the upward trend was resumed until 1982 when it again fell slightly. Projections for the future suggest that population growth will take place at a much slower rate than was expected a few years ago. Britain's total population is expected, on 1981 estimates to be 56.8 million in 1991, 57.7 million in 2001 and 58 million in 2016.

Birth Rates

In 1985 there were 752,000 live births (in England, Scotland and Wales) 22,500 fewer than in 1984, which outnumbered deaths (666,900) by 85,100. The total period fertility rate (an indication of the average size of family) has, remained below the level of 2.1 required for the replacement of the population, although it increased to 1.80 in 1985 from 1.77 in 1984.

Several factors may have contributed to the relatively low birth rate. Contraception has become more widespread and effective, making it easier to plan families, and voluntary sterilisation of men and women has also become more common. An appreciable proportion of pregnancies (in 1984 about 37 per cent of those conceived outside marriage and 7 per cent of those conceived within marriage) are ended by legal abortion.

The postponement of conception within marriage coupled with a trend towards later marriage has led to an increase to 26, in the average age at which women have their first child in marriage Another feature is the current preference for smaller families, especially two children families, than in the past, which has led to a significant decline in the proportion of families with four or more children.

Mortality

At birth the expectation of life for a man is about 70 years and for a woman 76 years compared with 49 years for men and 52 for women in 1901. The improving health of the population has mainly had the effect of increasing young people's chances of reaching the older age groups. Life expectancy in the older age groups has increased relatively little.

The general death rate has remained about the same for the past 40 years, at about 12 per 1,000 population, reflecting the gradual ageing of the population since there has been a considerable decline in mortality at most ages, particularly among children and young adults. The infant mortality rate (deaths of infants under one year old per 1,000 live births) was 9 6 in 1984; neonatal mortality (deaths of infants under four weeks old per 1,000 live births) was 5.7 in 1984; and maternal mortality is about 0.1 per 1,000 live births.

The causes of the decline in mortality include better nutrition, rising standards of living the advance of medical science, the growth of medical facilities, improved health measures, better working conditions education in personal hygiene, and the smaller size of families Major changes since 1951 in the causes of death have included the virtual disappearance of deaths resulting from infectious diseases (notably tuberculosis) and an increase in the proportion of deaths caused by circulatory diseases (including heart attacks and strokes) and by cancer (responsible for nearly one-quarter of deaths).

Marriage and Divorce

During the last 20 years there has been a marked change in the pattern of marriage. In 1972 there were 480,300 marriages in the UK, but by 1982 the number had declined to 387,000 with a subsequent increase to 393,249 in 1985. Of the population aged 16 or over in England and Wales in 1985, 61 per cent were married, 25 per cent single, 9 per cent widowed and 5 per cent divorced. The trend of the 1960s towards earlier marriage was reversed at the beginning of the 1970s, since when there has been a slow increase in the average age for first marriages, which in England and Wales is now just over 26 for men and 24 for women. Remarriages (of one or both parties) account for about 36 per cent of all marriages in England and Wales compared with 20 per cent in 1971 and 15 per cent in 1961, and about 12 per cent of all marriages in 1985 were remarriages where both partners had been divorced.

The divorce rate has been increasing steadily and in 1985 about 13 decrees of divorce were made absolute for every 1,000 married couples in England and Wales, compared with two in 1961. The rates are much lower in Scotland and Northern Ireland. In 1985 about 160,300 divorces were granted in England and Wales; the proportion granted to wives was about 72 per cent. The average age of people at the time of divorce in England and Wales has been falling and is now about 37 for men and 35 for women.

Another feature, common to many other Western European countries, has been a considerable increase in cohabitation. Nearly 25 per cent of women in Great Britain marrying in the period 1979 to 1982 where the marriage was the first for both parties had lived with their husbands before marriage (compared with 8 per cent in the early 1970s) and about 12 per cent of non-married women aged 18 to 49 were cohabiting during 1983-4. Cohabitation occurs more frequently for separated or divorced women than for single women. There is some evidence of a growing number of stable non-married relationships and in the proportion of illegitimate births (which now account for over 19 per cent of live births in Britain compared with 6 per cent in 1961) registered by both parents.

Age and Sex Structure

Although the total population has remained relatively stable in the last decade, there have been noticeable changes in the age and sex structure, including a decline in the proportion of young people under 16 and an increase in the proportion of elderly people, especially those aged 85 and over. The estimated age distribution of the British population in mid-1982 was roughly as follows: under 16 years, about 21 per cent; 16-64, 64 per cent; and 65 and over, 15 per cent. Some 18 per cent of the population were over the normal retirement ages (65 for men and 60 for women), compared with 15 per cent in 1961.

In mid-1985 there were 29 million females and 27.6 million males in the United Kingdom, representing a ratio of nearly 105 females to every 100 males. There are about 6 per cent more male than female births every year. Because of the higher mortality of men at all ages, however, there is a turning point, at about 51 years of age, at which the number of women exceeds the number of men. This imbalance increases with age so that there is a preponderance of women among the elderly.

Distribution of Population

The population density is about 239 per sq km which is relatively high in comparison with most other countries. England is the most densely populated with 361 people per sq km (with Greater London having a density of 4,283 people per sq km), and Scotland the least densely populated with 65 people per sq km, while Wales and Northern Ireland have 135 and 111 people per sq km respectively.

Table 1 gives figures for some of the United Kingdom's largest urban areas. About half of the population lives in a belt across England, with south Lancashire and West Yorkshire at one end, the London area at the other, and the industrialised midlands at its centre. Other areas with large populations are: the central lowlands of Scotland; north east England from north of the river Tyne down to the river Tees; south east Wales; the Bristol area; and the English Channel coast from Poole, in Dorset, eastwards. Less densely populated areas are the eastern fringes of England between the Wash and the Thames estuary, and the far south west. The eight major metropolitan areas which have been denoted as 'conurbations' in successive population censuses accommodate a third of Great Britain's people while comprising less than 3 per cent of the total land area. They are: Greater London, Central Clydeside, Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, the West Midlands and West Yorkshire. Most of the mountainous parts, including much of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland and the central Pennines, are very sparsely populated.

Table 1 : Size and Population of the Main Urban Districts, Mid-1985

	Area		
	sq km	sq miles	Population (thousands)
Greater London	1,580	609.7	6,767.5
Birmingham	264	102.0	1,007.5
Glasgow	198	76.3	733.8
Leeds	562	217.0	710.5

Sheffield	368	141.9	538.7
Liverpool	113	43.6	491.5
Bradford	370	142.9	463.5
Manchester	116	44.9	451.1
Edinburgh	261	100.6	439.7
Bristol	110	42.3	393.8
Belfast	140	54.0	301.6
Coventry	97	37.3	312.2
Cardiff	120	46.3	278.9

Since the nineteenth century there has been a general trend, especially in London for people to move away from the congested urban centres into suburbs. The 1981 census recorded that only in the remoter rural areas has the rate of population growth been higher in the 1970s than in the 1960s. There has also been a geographical redistribution of the population from Scotland and the northern regions of England to East Anglia, the South West and the East Midlands. Another feature has been an increase in the rate of retirement migration, the main recipient areas (where in some towns the elderly can form over one third of the population) being the south coast of England and East Anglia.

Migration

Traditionally there is a net outflow of people from the United Kingdom to the rest of the world; but in 1985 when the inflow was 34 per cent higher than in 1984 there was a net gain of 97,000. Between 1980 and 1985 some 1.24 million people left the United Kingdom to live abroad and about 1.2 million came from overseas to live in the United Kingdom, so that net emigration reduced the population by about 41,000. Of the 174,000 emigrants in 1985, 19 per cent left for Australia, Canada or New Zealand, 18 per cent for other Commonwealth countries, 17 per cent for other European Community countries, 14 per cent for the United States and 10 per cent to the Middle East. Of the 270,000 immigrants, 14 per cent came from Australia, Canada or New Zealand 21 per cent from other Commonwealth countries and 20 per cent from other European Community countries. A significant number of those leaving or entering Britain were British citizens.

The Economic and Social Pattern

The majority of people (some 97 per cent) live in private households (in families or on their own). The remainder include residents in hotels, and people in the armed services and in educational or other institutions. In 1984 eight out of ten people lived in a unit headed by a married couple.

Among many changes in household and family structure is the continuing fall in the average size of households in Great Britain from over four persons in 1911 to 3.1 in 1961 and 2.59 in 1984. The fall reflects a greater proportion of people living on their own (8 per cent) or in one-parent•families, the increasing number of elderly people (more of whom are living alone), and the preferences of parents for smaller families. The trend towards small households (25 per cent of households consist of one person) is expected to continue and the number of one person households is forecast to increase from 4.4 million in 1979 to about 6 million by 1991, of which 3.6 million would be pensioner households.

Leisure Trends

Most people have considerably more free time, more ways in which to spend it and higher real incomes than had previous generations. Agreed hours of full-time work are usually from 35 to 40 hours a week although many people actually work somewhat longer because of voluntary overtime. A large majority of employees work a five day week.

The most common leisure activities are home based, or social, with visiting or entertaining relatives or friends and watching television among the most popular. Watching television is the main evening pastime for all except young men. Nearly all households have a television set and in winter the population aged five and over spend on average 20 hours a week watching programmes. Growing numbers are using video recorders to provide television viewing suited to their individual taste and to watch programmes at times other than their transmission. Other popular pursuits include: listening to the radio, records or cassettes; reading; do it-yourself home improvements such as house painting and decorating; going out for a meal or for a drink or to the cinema or to watch a sporting event; gardening; outings (such as visits to the countryside, seaside or to museums); photography; visits to social clubs and leisure centres; and social and voluntary work. About half the households in the United Kingdom have a pet, the most common being dogs (of which there are thought to be more than 6 million in the United Kingdom) and cats (over 5 million).

Sports and other pastimes have grown in popularity, reflected by increasing membership of the main organisations concerned with outdoor activities, although for some sports, such as football, the number of spectators has been declining. Activities in which people participate include, in order of popularity, walking, darts and swimming.

Almost all full time employees are entitled to a paid holiday each year in addition to public holidays and by the end of 1984 some 95 per cent of manual workers had a basic holiday entitlement of four weeks or more and 19 per cent five weeks or more.

The number of holidays (of four or more nights) taken by British residents was 48.75 million in 1985 compared with 48 million in 1975. Holidays abroad in 1985 numbered 15.75 million, compared with 8.25 million in 1973 and well over half involved 'package' arrangements. More than four-fifths of overseas holidays were taken in other European countries, with Spain being the most popular destination; it received one-third of all British holidaymakers abroad. The next most popular destinations were France, Italy, Greece, the Federal Republic of Germany and Austria. The main holiday period is May to September when over 80 per cent of holidays in the United Kingdom and 70 per cent of holidays abroad are taken. An increasing number of people (20 per cent in 1985) take more than one long holiday each year but a significant proportion take no holiday away from home.

Ethnic and National Minorities

The United Kingdom has a long history of accommodating minority groups and in the last two hundred years or so a variety of people have settled in the country, some to avoid political or religious persecution, others seeking a better way of life or an escape from poverty.

The Irish have long made homes in the United Kingdom, and comprise the largest single minority group. Many Jewish refugees started a new life in the country towards the end of the nineteenth century and in the 1930s, and after 1945 large numbers of other European refugees settled in the United Kingdom. The large communities from the West Indies and South Asian sub-continent date from the 1950s and early 1960s. There are also sizeable groups of Americans, Australians, Chinese and various European communities such as Greek and Turkish Cypriots, Italians and Spaniards. More recently Ugandan Asians and refugees from Indo-China have settled in the United Kingdom.

In 1984 the population of New Commonwealth (ie the Commonwealth less Australia, Canada and New Zealand) and Pakistani ethnic origin was estimated at 2.4 million (just over 4 per cent of the total population of Great Britain) of whom over 40 per cent were born in the UK. Most of them share aspirations that are broadly similar to those of the British community as a whole and they enjoy full political and civic rights. Although the circumstances of many members of the ethnic minority communities are less fortunate than those of other groups (for example, they suffer disproportionately from unemployment and often live in poor housing in the older urban areas) there have been important advances over the last 25 years in employment and housing conditions, and many individuals have achieved distinction in their careers and in public life.

The difficulties minorities face are being alleviated by continuous social programmes, some of which benefit the whole community, while other projects are directed towards meeting the minorities' special needs. Although fewer children than formerly go to school with no knowledge of English, there are still many who have insufficient grasp of the language. Language teaching is recognised to be of prime importance and additional teachers are appointed to schools with ethnic minorities. For adults, classes at or outside their place of work are run by local authorities and voluntary organisations. Government grants are available to authorities with substantial ethnic minority groups towards the salaries of extra staff such as teachers, health visitors and interpreters.

The welfare of ethnic minorities and good relations between minorities and the local community are promoted by community relations councils and other voluntary bodies. In recognition of the tensions that can arise between the police and ethnic minorities consultation between the police and the community is seen as having particular importance and consultative committees have been set up in many areas. Policies for promoting equality of opportunity in a multiracial society in which all citizens receive equal respect are pursued against a background of legislation against discrimination.

Women

Considerable changes have occurred in the twentieth century in the economic and domestic lives of women, due, in part, to the removal of almost all sex discrimination in political and legal rights. At the heart of women's changed role has been the rise in the number of women, particularly married women, at work. With later marriages and the availability of effective methods of family planning there has been a decline in family size. Women as a result are involved in child-bearing for a much shorter time and this, together with a variety of other factors which have made housework less burdensome, has made it possible for women with even young children to return to work.

Women comprise about two-fifths of the British labour force. Since the second world war the proportion of married women who work has grown to over 60 per cent of those between the ages of 16 and 60, and they now make up some 28 per cent of the labour force compared with 4 per cent in 1921. Many families have come to rely on married women's earnings as an essential part of their income. There is still a significant difference between women's and men's earnings but the equal pay legislation which came into force at the end of 1975 has narrowed the gap. Women's average hourly earnings, exclusive of overtime (for full time employees), increased from just under two thirds of those of men in 1970, to nearly three quarters in 1985. Nevertheless, women's wages remain relatively low because women tend to work in lowly paid sectors of the economy and they work less overtime than men.

A3. THE ECONOMY

The United Kingdom has an open economy and, in consequence, international trade is a vital part of economic performance. In 1985 exports of goods and services accounted for almost one third of its gross domestic product (GDP), one of the highest shares in the major economies. The proportion has increased over the last two decades from about 20 per cent in the early 1960s. Similar rises have occurred in most other developed countries, reflecting the growing importance of international trade in an increasingly interdependent world economy.

One of the world's largest exporters of visible goods, the United Kingdom accounts for about 5 per cent of the total. It is among the major exporters of aerospace products, motor vehicles, electrical equipment, finished textiles and most types of machinery. It is also one of the world's largest importers of agricultural products, raw materials and semi manufactures. In overall terms, the United Kingdom is self-sufficient in oil.

The economy is primarily based on private enterprise, and government policy is aimed at encouraging the private sector, which accounts for 71 per cent of GDP and total employment. Within the public sector, local authorities account for 12 per cent of total employment, central government for 10 per cent and public corporations for 7 per cent.

The traditional economic strength of the United Kingdom, as a pioneer in the industrial revolution, has been manufacturing. However, over the last 20 years the industrial structure of the economy has undergone a marked change -- a trend common to most major developed economies, reflecting several fundamental economic and social forces. Real personal disposable income in the United Kingdom has more than doubled since 1945; as incomes rise people tend to spend more on services - personal, financial and leisure services such as dry-cleaning and hairdressing, hire purchase and sports facilities. Also, rising real incomes in other countries have contributed to an increased overseas demand for British services such as air transport and construction.

Some 2.5 per cent of the United Kingdom's employed labour force is engaged in agriculture - a lower proportion than in any other major industrial country. However, because of a high level of productivity, the United Kingdom is able to produce nearly two-thirds of its own food.

The United Kingdom's energy position has been transformed in the last decade. With the discovery and exploitation of oil and natural gas from the Continental Shelf under the North Sea, the country has become self-sufficient in energy in net terms. In 1985 some 5 6 per cent of gross national product was attributable to the oil and gas sectors. Substantial revenues from oil and gas taxation have helped to ease the pressure of government borrowing and other forms of taxation, thus making an important contribution to reducing inflation; there have also been considerable benefits to the balance of payments. Coal - traditionally the most important source of energy - still accounts for some 36 per cent of the United Kingdom's needs; the value of the United Kingdom's coal reserves has been enhanced by the substantial increase in world oil prices since 1973.

Membership of the European Community from 1973 has had a major impact on the United Kingdom's pattern of trade, increasing the proportion with other member countries and reducing the share of Commonwealth trade. Between 1972 and 1985 the proportion of the United Kingdom's exports going to other member countries of the Community rose from 30 to 46 per cent while that going to other Commonwealth countries fell from 19 to 11 per cent. Imports followed a similar trend. Trade with the newly industrialising countries, including Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Malaysia, has risen substantially.

The broad historical pattern of the United Kingdom's overseas trade has been a deficit on visible trade offset by a surplus on invisible transactions (but there was a surplus on visible trade in 1980-82); these include, for example, transactions relating to international investment, travel, shipping and financial services. In 1983 earnings from invisibles comprised over 40 per cent of the United Kingdom's earnings on current account. In 1982 the United Kingdom accounted for nearly 8 per cent of world invisible receipts (excluding government transactions). The significant contribution made by invisibles to the current account is largely a reflection of the United Kingdom's position as a major financial centre. The banks, insurance underwriters and brokers, and other financial institutions of the City of London provide world-wide financial services, and the City contains perhaps the most comprehensive and advanced capital market in the world.

Trends in Employment

The total workforce in June 1985 was 27.6 million of whom 21.5 million (11.9 million men and 9.5 million women) were classed as employees in employment (Annex A). The percentage of women in employment (particularly those working part time) continues to rise, although at a reduced rate compared with previous years. The great majority of the working population work for a wage or salary, but over 2 million are self-employed.

The distribution of employees by industry, 1977 to 1985 is shown in Annex A. There has been a substantial change in the pattern of employment during the last two decades. Employment in manufacturing has been falling from a peak reached in 1966 and employment in services has risen sharply, by over 1 million between 1977 and 1985. Higher living standards and technological developments have stimulated the growth of a number of service industries while automation has increased efficiency and reduced the demand for labour in manufacturing.

A4. GOVERNMENT

The United Kingdom constitution, unlike that of most other countries, is not contained in any single document. Formed partly by statute, partly by common law and partly by convention, it can be altered by Act of Parliament, or by general agreement to create, vary or abolish a convention. The constitution thus adapts readily to changing political conditions and ideas.

The political system of the United Kingdom is a multiparty democracy. The organs of government are clearly distinguishable although their functions often intermingle and overlap. The legislature, Parliament, is the supreme authority. The executive consists of: (1) the Government - Cabinet and other ministers who are responsible for initiating and directing national policy, (2) government departments, which are responsible for national administration, (3) local authorities, which administer and manage many local services, and (4) public corporations responsible for operating particular nationalised industries or, for example, a social or cultural service, subject to ministerial control in varying degrees. The judiciary determines common law and interprets statutes, and is independent of both legislature and executive.

PARLIAMENT

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority. Its three elements, the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons, are outwardly separate, are constituted on different principles, and meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State opening of Parliament when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. As a law-making body, however, Parliament usually requires the concurrence of all its parts.

Parliament can legislate for the United Kingdom as a whole, for any of the constituent parts of the country separately, or for any combination of them. It can also legislate for the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man, which are Crown dependencies and not part of the United Kingdom, having subordinate legislatures which make laws on island affairs.[1]

Free from any legal restraints imposed by a written constitution Parliament is able to legislate as it pleases; generally to make, unmake, or alter any law; to legalise past illegalities and make void and punishable what was lawful when done and thus reverse the decisions of the ordinary courts; and to destroy established conventions or turn a convention into binding law. It can prolong its own life beyond the normal period without consulting the electorate.

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[1] The legislatures of the Channel Islands (the States of Jersey and the States of Guernsey) and the Isle of Man (the Tynwald Court) consist of the Queen, the Privy Council and the local assemblies. It is the duty of the Home Secretary, as the Privy Council member primarily concerned with island affairs, to scrutinise each legislative measure before it is submitted to the Queen in Council.

In practice, however, Parliament does not assert its supremacy in this way. Its members bear in mind the common law and have tended to act in accordance with precedent and tradition. The validity of an Act of Parliament which has been duly passed, promulgated and published cannot be disputed in the law courts, but no Parliament would be likely to pass an Act which it knew would receive no public support. The system of party government helps to ensure that Parliament legislates with its responsibility to the electorate in mind.

As a member of the European Community, the United Kingdom recognises the various types of Community legislation and sends 81 elected members to the European Parliament.

The Functions of Parliament

The main functions of Parliament are (1) to pass laws, (2) to provide, by voting taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government, and (3) to scrutinise government policy and administration, particularly proposals for expenditure. In discharging these functions Parliament helps to bring the relevant facts and issues before the electorate. By custom, Parliament is also consulted before the ratification of all important international treaties and agreements, the making of treaties being, in theory at least, a royal prerogative exercised on the advice of the Government and not subject to parliamentary approval.

Meeting of Parliament

A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but is often dissolved and a general election held before the end of this term. The maximum life has been prolonged by legislation in such rare circumstances as the two world wars. Dissolution and writs for a general election are ordered by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords consists of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of London, Durham and Winchester and the 21 senior diocesan bishops of the Church of England. The Lords Temporal consists of (1) all hereditary peers and peeresses of England, Scotland, Great Britain and the United Kingdom who have not disclaimed their peerages, (2) all life peers and peeresses, and (3) those Lords of Appeal ('law lords') created life peers to assist the House in its judicial duties. Hereditary peerages carry a right to sit in the House (subject to certain disqualifications), provided the holder is 21 years of age or over but anyone succeeding to a peerage may, within 12 months of succession disclaim that peerage for his or her lifetime. Disclaimants lose their right to sit in the House but gain the right to vote at parliamentary elections and to offer themselves for election to the House of Commons.

Temporal peerages, both hereditary and life, are conferred on the advice of the Prime Minister. They are usually granted either in recognition of service in politics or other walks of life or because the Government of the day wishes to have the recipient in the House of Lords. The House also provides a place in Parliament for men and women whose advice is useful to the State, but who do not wish to be involved in party politics.

In mid 1986 there were 1,175 members of the House of Lords, including the two archbishops and 24 bishops. The Lords Temporal consisted of 761 hereditary peers who had succeeded to their titles, 29 hereditary peers who have had their titles conferred on them (including the Prince of Wales), and 359 life peers, of whom 21 were 'law lords'. Of the total, 92 peers were not in receipt of a writ of summons and 136 peers were on leave of absence from the House (see below). Of the 114 Irish peers 47 were entitled to sit in the House of Lords because they were holders of an English, Scottish or United Kingdom peerage. Other Irish peerages which pre date the union of Great Britain and Ireland in 1800 do not entitle their holders to membership of the House of Lords.

Not all peers with a right to sit in the House of Lords attend the sittings. Peers who frequently attend the House (the average daily attendance is about 300) include elder statesmen and others who have spent their lives in public service. They receive no salary for their parliamentary work, but can recover expenses incurred in attending the House and certain travelling expenses (for which there are maximum daily rates).

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is elected by universal adult suffrage and consists of 650 members of Parliament (MPs). At present 28 are women. Of the 650 seats, 523 are for England, 38 for Wales, 72 for Scotland, and 17 for Northern Ireland.

General elections are held after a Parliament has been dissolved and a new one summoned by the Queen. When an MP dies or resigns or is given a peerage, a by election takes place. Members are paid.

Parliamentary Electoral System

For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into constituencies, each of which returns one member to the House of Commons. To ensure equitable representation four permanent Boundary Commissions one each for England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, make periodic reviews of constituencies and recommend any redistribution of seats that may seem necessary in the light of population movements or other changes. Their last recommendations were submitted to Parliament in 1982 83 and formed the basis for the constituencies in the 1983 general election.

Elections are by secret ballot. British citizens and citizens of other Commonwealth countries, together with citizens of the Irish

Republic, may vote provided they are aged 18 or over, resident in the United Kingdom, registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and not subject to any disqualification. People not entitled to vote include members of the House of Lords, patients detained under mental health legislation, sentenced prisoners and people convicted within the previous five years of corrupt or illegal election practices. Service voters (members of the armed forces and their spouses, Crown servants and staff of the British Council employed overseas together with their wives or husbands if accompanying them) may be registered for an address in a constituency where they would live but for their service.

Each elector may cast one vote, normally in person at a polling station. Service voters resident abroad and merchant seamen may vote by proxy or if in the United Kingdom at the time of the election, by post. Electors who are physically incapacitated or unable to vote in person because of the nature of their work are also entitled to vote by post or by proxy. The Representation of the People Act 1985 extended absent voting arrangements to holiday makers, people on business trips and others who could not reasonably be expected to go to the poll in person.

Voting is not compulsory; nearly 73 per cent of a total electorate of some 42 million people voted in the general election of June 1983. The candidate who polls the most votes in a constituency is elected.

British citizens and citizens of other Commonwealth countries together with citizens of the Irish Republic, may stand and be elected as MPs provided they are aged 21 or over and are not subject to any disqualification. Those disqualified include undischarged bankrupts, people sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment, clergy of the Church of England, Church of Scotland, Church of Ireland and Roman Catholic Church, peers, and holders of certain offices listed in the House of Commons Disqualification Act 1975. The latter include holders of judicial office, civil servants, some local government officers, members of the regular armed forces, or the police service, some members of public corporations and government commissions and in addition British members of the legislature of any country or territory outside the Commonwealth. A candidate's nomination for election must be signed by two electors as proposer and seconder, and by eight other electors registered in the constituency. He or she does not require any party backing. A candidate must also deposit £500 which is forfeited if his or her votes do not exceed 5 per cent of those validly cast.

The maximum sum a candidate may spend on an election campaign is £2,700 plus 2.8 pence for each elector in a borough constituency or 3.7 pence for each elector in a county constituency. A candidate may post an election address to each elector in the constituency free of charge. All election expenses, apart from the candidate's personal expenses, are subject to the statutory limit.

The Representation of the People Act 1985 now allows British citizens resident overseas to vote at elections to both the Westminster and European Parliaments for a peroid of up to 5 years after they have left the United Kingdom. To qualify as an overseas elector, a person must have been resident and registered as an elector for a Constituency in the UK within the previous 5 years, and must also declare that he does not pretend to reside permanently outside the UK.

The Political Party System

The party system, existing in one form or another since the eighteenth century, is an essential element in the working of the constitution

The present system relies heavily upon the existence of organised political parties, each laying policies before the electorate for approval. The parties are not registered or formally recognised in law, but in practice most candidates in elections, and almost all winning candidates, belong to one or the main parties.

For the last 150 years a predominantly two party system has operated and since 1945 either the Conservative Party, which can trace its origins to the eighteenth century, or the Labour Party, which emerged in the last decade of the nineteenth century, have held power. The Liberal Party, which last formed a government on its own in 1906 16, can also trace its origins to the eighteenth century, while the Social Democratic Party, which has formed an alliance with the Liberal Party, was formed in 1981. Other parties include two nationalist parties, Plaid Cymru (founded in Wales in 1925) and the Scottish National Party (founded in 1934), and a number of Northern Ireland parties, the largest of which are the Ulster Unionist Party, formed in the early part of this century, and the Democratic Unionist Party, founded in 1971 by a group which broke away from the Ulster Unionists.

The party which wins most seats (although not necessarily the most votes) at a general election, or which has the support of a majority of members in the House of Commons, usually forms the Government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government; and about 100 of its members in the House or Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition with its own leader and 'shadow cabinet'.

Leaders or the Government and Opposition sit on the front benches of the Commons with their supporters (the back benchers) sitting behind them. Similar arrangements for the parties also apply to the House of Lords; however, Lords who do not wish to be associated with either the Government or the Opposition may sit on the 'cross benches'. The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament rests largely on the relationship between the Government and the opposition parties. Depending on the relative voting strengths of the parties in the House of Commons, the Opposition might seek to overthrow the Government by securing its defeat on a 'matter of confidence'. In general, however, its aims are to contribute to the formulation of policy and legislation by constructive criticism; to oppose government proposals that it considers objectionable; to secure concessions on government Bills; and to increase public support and enhance its chances of electoral success.

HER MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers responsible for the administration of national affairs.

The Prime Minsiter is appointed by the Queen, and all other ministers are appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the Prime Minister.

The majority of ministers are members of the Commons, although the Government is also fully represented by ministers in the Lords. The Lord Chancellor is always a member of the House of Lords.

Composition

The composition of the Government can vary both in the number of ministers and in the titles of some offices. The creation of a paid ministerial office with entirely new functions, the abolition of an office, the transfer of functions from one minister to another, or a change in the designation of a minister may be effected by Order in Council.

The Cabinet

The Cabinet is composed of about 20 ministers chosen by the Prime Minister and may include departmental and non departmental ministers. Its origins can be traced back to the informal conferences which the Sovereign held with leading ministers, independently of the Privy Council, during the seventeenth century. After the Sovereign's withdrawal from an active role in politics in the eighteenth century, and the development of organised political parties stimulated by successive extensions of the franchise from 1832 onwards, the Cabinet assumed its modern form.

The functions of the Cabinet are: the final determination of policies the supreme control of government and the co ordination of government departments. The exercise of these functions is vitally affected by the fact that the Cabinet is a group of party representatives, depending upon majority support in the House of Commons.

Ministerial Responsibility

'Ministerial responsibility' refers both to the collective responsibility which ministers share for government policy and actions and to ministers' individual responsibility to Parliament for their departments' work.

The doctrine of collective responsibility means that the Cabinet acts unanimously even when Cabinet ministers do not all agree on a subject. The policy of departmental ministers must be consistent with the policy of the Government as a whole. Once the Government's policy on a matter has been decided, each minister is expected to support it or resign. On rare occasions, ministers have been allowed free votes in Parliament on government policies involving important issues of principle.

The individual responsibility of a minister for the work of his or her department means that as political head of that department, he or she is answerable for all its acts and omissions and must bear the consequences of any defect of administration, any injustice to an individual or any aspect of policy which may be criticised in Parliament, whether personally responsible or not. Since most ministers are members of the House of Commons, they must answer questions and defend themselves against criticism in person. Departmental ministers in the House of Lords are represented in the Commons by someone qualified to speak on their behalf, usually a junior minister.

Departmental ministers normally decide all matters within their responsibility, although on important political matters they usually consult their colleagues collectively, through the Cabinet or a Cabinet committee. A decision by a departmental minister binds the Government as a whole.

The responsibility of ministers for their departments is an effective way of keeping government under public control, for the knowledge that any departmental action may be reported to and examined in Parliament discourages the taking of arbitrary and ill-considered decisions.

On assuming office ministers must resign directorships in private and public companies and must order their affairs so that there is no conflict between public duties and private interests.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Government departments are the main instruments for giving effect to government policy when Parliament has passed the necessary legislation, and for advising ministers. They may, and frequently do, work with and through local authorities, statutory boards, and government-sponsored organisations operating under various degrees of government control.

A change of government does not necessarily affect the number or general functions of government departments although a radical change in policy may be accompanied by some organisational change.

The work of some departments (for instance, the Ministry of Defence) covers the United Kingdom as a whole. Other departments (like the Department of Employment) cover England, Wales and Scotland, but not Northern Ireland. Others, such as the Department of the Environment, are mainly concerned with affairs in England.

Some departments, such as the Department of Trade and Industry, maintain a regional organisation, and some which have direct contact with the public throughout the country (for example, the Department of Employment) also have local offices.

A department is usually headed by a minister. Certain departments in which questions of policy do not normally arise are headed by a permanent official and a minister with other duties is responsible for them to Parliament. For instance, ministers in the Treasury are responsible for the **Central Office** of Information, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, HM Customs and Excise, the Inland Revenue, the Paymaster General's Office and a number of small departments including the Treasury Solicitor's Department, the Royal Mint, and the National Debt Office. Departments generally receive their funds directly out of money provided by Parliament and are staffed by the Civil Service.

A5. THE LAW

Although the United Kingdom is a unitary state, England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland each have their own legal systems and law courts. There is substantial similarity on many points, but considerable differences remain in law, organisation and practice. In Northern Ireland procedure closely resembles that of England and Wales but there are often differences in enacted law. However, a large volume of modern legislation applies throughout the United Kingdom and there is a common distinction between criminal law concerned with wrongful acts harmful to the community and civil law concerned with individuals' rights duties and obligations towards one another.

The main sources of law are legislation, common law and European Community law. Legislation consists of Acts of Parliament, orders (rules and regulations made by ministers under the authority of an Act of Parliament) and by-laws made by local government or other authorities exercising powers conferred by Parliament. Common law the ancient law of the land deduced from custom and interpreted in court cases by the judges, has never been precisely defined or codified but forms the basis of the law except when superseded by legislation. European Community law is confined mainly to economic and social matters; in certain circumstances it takes precedence over domestic law. It is normally applied by the domestic courts, but the most authoritative rulings are given by the European Court of Justice.

Certain changes in United Kingdom law have been enacted as a result of rulings of the European Court of Human Rights in particular cases where the domestic law was in breach with the European Convention on the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, to which the United Kingdom is a party.

B. LEGAL AND OTHER MEASURES ADOPTED

The principal legislation for the combatting of discrimination in the Great Britain against women is the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 which makes discrimination on grounds of sex unlawful in the fields of employment, education, education and training, the provision of goods, facilities and services and in the disposal and management of premises. It applies to discrimination on grounds of sex or being married against both men and women. The Act prohibits direct or intentional discrimination, but it also prohibits indirect discrimination treatment which may be described as equal in a formal sense, but is discriminatory in its effect on one sex and cannot be shown to be justified Discriminatory advertisements and instructions or pressure to discriminate are also unlawful under the Act.

The Sex Discrimination Act is supported by extensive enforcement provisions. Anyone who considers they have been the victim of unlawful discrimination has a right of direct access to the courts or an industrial tribunal. Enforcement in the employment field is dealt with by industrial tribunals. Enforcement relating to discrimination in the fields of education, goods, facilities and services, and premises are dealt with, in England and Wales, in the County Courts and, in Scotland, in the Sheriff courts.

A court may award

a) an order declaring the rights of the parties

b) an injunction or order

c) damages.

Similar legislation exists in Northern Ireland. by virtue of the Sex Discrimination (Northern Ireland) Order 1976.

In ratifying the Convention, the United Kingdom reserved the right to regard the provisions of the Acts listed below as constituting appropriate measures for the practical realisation of the objectives of the Convention in the social and economic circumstances of the United Kingdom.

- Sex Discrimination Act 1975
- Equal Pay Act 1970 (as amended)
  Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978
  Employment Act 1980

These Acts together with the Sex Discrimination Act 1986 and Northern Ireland legislation provide a full legal framework for the implementation in the United Kingdom of the rights described by the Convention. The Government recognises, however, that there is a limit to what can be achieved by legislation. It therefore takes a variety of practical action to help promote equal opportunities for men and women in the labour market

The above legislation has effectively increased women's freedom to play their full part in the economic and social life of Britain and has provided protection against those practices which, consciously or unconsciously, prevented them from doing so in the past. However, it has always been recognised in Britain that providing statutory protection for the victims of discrimination is only part of the process of creating an equal society. The great obstacle to the full achievement of equality of opportunity is traditional attitudes.

The United Kingdom has always believed that each Government Department must be responsible for policies and action in its own areas and that, in developing a policy, a Department will take account of the Government's commitment to equality of opportunity. However, in order to co-ordinate the development of policies as they relate to women, a Ministerial Group on Women's Issues was established in May 1986. This provides Ministers with the opportunity of scrutinising policy and practice to see whether changes need to be made to reflect the proper aspirations of women particularly in relation to the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women and the present Convention.

C AND D. INSTITUTIONS AND REMEDIES, AND MEANS

The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 also set up the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) which although financed from public funds is an independent body with three important duties.

1. To work towards the elimination of discrimination.

2. To promote equality of opportunity between men and women generally; and

3. To keep under review the working of the Act and the Equal Pay Act 1970 and, when required by the Home Secretary or when it considers it necessary to draw up and submit proposals for amending these Acts. The Commission is also a principal source of information and advice for the general public about these Acts.

The EOC also has the power to conduct a formal investigation for any purpose concerned with its statutory duties. If in the course of such an investigation the EOC becomes satisfied that a contravention of the Sex Discrimination Act has occurred it may issue a legally enforceable non discrimination notice requiring the individual or organisation concerned to comply with the law. The EOC may give assistance to a complainant either by giving advice, seeking a settlement or arranging for legal advice or representation before a court or tribunal.

In addition to its role in the enforcement of the law, the EOC does a great deal of promotional and educational work and provides individuals and organisations, employers and employees, to trades unions and professional bodies and to central and local government. The EOC is able to make grants to other bodies or to individuals for independent research projects or educational activities or for the organisation of conferences. It also has its own research services which produce a wide range of publications each year

Subsequent to the seminar mentioned in the Introduction, the Equal Opportunities Commission published a report entitled "United Kingdom report under the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women: views of the Equal Opportunities Commission" reflecting its independent views on the UK's response to the Convention.

The Equal Opportunities Commission for Northern Ireland has similar powers and duties.

Any woman (or man) who feels that she (or he) has been discriminated against contrary to the Equal Pay Act 1970 or the employment provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 or Sex Discrimination Act 1986 can seek redress by making a complaint to an industrial tribunal. These tribunals which consist of a legally qualified chairman and two lay members who have knowledge or experience of industry or commerce one as an employer the other as an employee - are the judicial bodies responsible for hearing complaints under all provisions of the UK's employment law.

An individual may complain to an industrial tribunal within three months of the date of the act complained of under the Sex Discrimination Act, or six months under the Equal Pay Act, although a tribunal has discretion to consider a complaint which is presented beyond these limits if, in all the circumstances of the case, it considers it just and equitable to do so.

There is an avenue of appeal on a point of law to the Employment Appeals Tribunal and from there to the Higher Courts.

If an industrial tribunal finds in an applicant's favour it may award, under the Sex Discrimination Act, such of the following remedies as it considers just and equitable.

(a) an order declaring the rights of the parties;

(b) an order requiring the respondent to pay the complainant compensation;

(c) a recommendation that the respondent take a particular course of action,

or, under the Equal Pay Act, a declaration that the applicant is entitled to equal pay and back pay for up to two years in arrears.

The United Kingdom's legal advice and assistance scheme under the Legal Aid Acts is available to assist persons who consider that they have been discriminated against in relation to a matter within the jurisdiction of an industrial tribunal (although the legal aid scheme is not available for industrial tribunal proceedings. It is available for appeals from the decisions of industrial tribunals).

Advice and assistance is available to tribunal applicants also from the EOC (see above), the Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service   the body established by the Government to provide, amongst other things, information and advice on a wide range of industrial relations matters, including aspects of equal opportunities legislation   and the independent Citizens Advice Bureaux. The EOC can also in some circumstances provide full legal representation at tribunal hearings.

E. HOW CONVENTION IS INVOKED

The provisions of the Convention cannot be invoked directly but are implemented through national legislation (see para b above).

PART TWO

ARTICLE 1

DISCRIMINATION

On ratifying the Convention the United Kingdom made, inter alia, the following reservations:

"(a) The United Kingdom understand the main purpose of the Convention, in the light of the definition contained in Article 1, to be the reduction, in accordance with its terms, of discrimination against women, and does not therefore regard the Convention as imposing any requirement to repeal or modify any existing laws, regulations, customs or practices which provide for women to be treated more favourably than men, whether temporarily or in the longer term; the United Kingdom's undertakings under Article 4, paragraph 1 and other provisions of the Convention are to be construed accordingly.

(b) In the light of the definition contained in Article 1, the United Kingdom's ratification is subject to the understanding that none of its obligations under the Convention shall be treated as extending to the succession to, or possession and enjoyment of, the Throne the peerage, titles of honour, social precedence or armorial bearings, or as extending to the affairs of religious denominations or orders or to the admission into or service in the Armed Forces of the Crown.

With reference to the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and other applicable legislation, the United Kingdom's acceptance of Article 1 is subject to the reservation that the phrase "irrespective of their marital status" shall not be taken to render discriminatory any difference of treatment accorded to single persons as against married persons, so long as there is equality of treatment as between married men and married women and as between single men and single women."

This is reflected in the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 which defines discrimination as follows:

"PART I

DISCRIMINATION TO WHICH ACT APPLIES

1. (1) A person discriminates against a woman in any circumstances relevant for the purposes of any provision of this Act if

(a) on the ground of her sex he treats her less favourably than he treats or would treat a man, or

(b) he applies to her a requirement on condition which he applies or would apply equally to a man but

(i) which is such that the proportion of women who can comply with it is considerably smaller than the proportion of men who can comply with it, and

(ii) which he cannot show to be justifiable irrespective of the sex of the person to whom it is applied, and

(iii) which is to her detriment because she cannot comply with it.

(2) If a person treats or would treat a man differently according to the man's marital status, his treatment of a woman is for the purposes of subsection (1)(a) to be compared to his treatment of a man having the like marital status.

2. (1) Section 1, and the provisions of Parts II and III relating to sex discrimination against women, are to be read as applying equally to the treatment of men, and for that purpose shall have effect with such modifications as are requisite

(2) In the application of subsection (1) no account shall be taken of special treatment afforded to women in connection with pregnancy or childbirth.

3. (1) A person discriminates against a married person of either sex in any circumstances relevant for the purposes of any provision of Part II if

(a) on the ground of his or her marital status he treats that person less favourably than he treats or would treat an unmarried person of the same sex, or

(b) he applies to that person a requirement or condition which he applies or would apply equally to an unmarried person but -

(i) which is such that the proportion of married persons who can comply with it is considerably smaller than the proportion of unmarried persons of the same sex who can comply with it, and

(ii) which he cannot show to be justifiable irrespective of the marital status of the person to whom it is applied, and

(iii) which is to that person's detriment because he cannot comply with it.

(2) For the purposes of subsection (1), a provision of Part II framed with reference to discrimination against women shall be treated as applying equally to the treatment of men, and for that purpose shall have effect with such modifications as are requisite.

4. (1) A person ("the discriminator") discriminates against another person ("the person victimised") in any circumstances relevant for the purposes of any provision of this Act if he treats the person victimised less favourably than in those circumstances he treats or would treat other persons, and does so by reason that the person victimised has -

(a) brought proceedings against the discriminator or any other person under this Act or the Equal Pay Act 1970

(b) given evidence or information in connection with proceedings brought by any person against the discriminator or any other person under this Act or the Equal Pay Act 1970, or

(c) otherwise done anything under or by reference to this Act or the Equal Pay Act 1970 in relation to the discriminator or any other person, or

(d) alleged that the discriminator or any other person has committed an act which (whether or not the allegation so states) would amount to a contravention of this Act or give rise to a claim under the Equal Pay Act 1970,

or by reason that the discriminator knows the person victimised intends to do any of those things, or suspects the person victimised has done, or intends to do any of them.

(2) Subsection (1) does not apply to treatment of a person by reason of any allegation made by him if the allegation was false and not made in good faith.

(3) For the purposes of subsection (1), a provision of Part II or III framed with reference to discrimination against women shall be treated as applying equally to the treatment of men and for that purpose shall have effect with such modifications as are requisite.

5. (1) In this Act -

(a) references to discrimination refer to any discrimination falling within sections 1 to 4; and

(b) references to sex discrimination refer to any discrimination falling within section 1 or 2.

and related expressions shall be construed accordingly.

(2) In this Act -

"woman" includes a female of any age. and

"man" includes a male of any age.

(3) A comparison of the cases of persons of different sex or marital status under section 1(1) or 3(1) must be such that the relevant circumstances in the one case are the same, or not materially different, in the other."

ARTICLE 2

ELIMINATION OF DISCRIMINATION

This Article is subject to the following reservations:

"The United Kingdom reserves the right to regard the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, the Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978, the Employment Act 1980 the Sex Discrimination (Northern Ireland) Order 1976, the Industrial Relations (No. 2) (Northern Ireland) Order 1976, the Industrial Relations (Northern Ireland) Order 1982, the Equal Pay Act 1970 (as amended) and the Equal Pay Act (Northern Ireland) 1970 (as amended), including the exceptions and exemptions contained in any of these Acts and Orders, as constituting appropriate measures for the practical realisation of the objectives of the Convention in the social and economic circumstances of the United Kingdom and to continue to apply these provisions accordingly; this reservation will apply equally to any future legislation which may modify or replace the above Acts and Orders on the understanding that the terms of such legislation will be compatible with the United Kingdom's obligations under the Convention.

In the light of the substantial progress already achieved in the United Kingdom in promoting the progressive elimination of discrimination against women, the United Kingdom reserves the right, without prejudice to the other reservations made by the United Kingdom, to give effect to paragraphs (f) and (g) by keeping under review such of its laws and regulations as may still embody significant differences in treatment between men and women with a view to making changes to those laws and regulations when to do so would be compatible with essential and overriding considerations of economic policy. In relation to forms of discrimination more precisely prohibited by other provisions of the Convention, the obligations under this Article must (in the case of the United Kingdom) be read in conjunction with the other reservations and declarations made in respect of those provisions including the declarations and reservations of the United Kingdom contained in paragraphs (a) (d) above.

With regard to paragraphs (f) and (g) of this Article the United Kingdom reserves the right to continue to apply its law relating to sexual offences and prostitution; this reservation will apply equally to any future law which may modify or replace it."

As stated in Part I of this Report, the constitution of the United Kingdom is not contained in any one document but is formed partly by statute, partly by common law and partly by convention. The principal legislation (together with those mentioned above) is the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 which describes itself as:

"An Act to render unlawful certain kinds of sex discrimination and discrimination on the ground of marriage, and establish a Commission with the function of working towards the elimination of such discrimination and promoting equality of opportunity between men and women generally; and for related purposes".

The specific provisions of this Article are dealt with elsewhere in the report.

ARTICLE 3

HUMAN RIGHTS AND FUNDAMENTAL FREEDOMS

Rights in the United Kingdom are residual. There is no Bill of Rights: rights are assumed unless limited by law. This applies equally to men and women.

The United Kingdom has ratified a number of international human rights instruments including the following.

1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

1953 Convention on the Political Rights of Women

1965 International Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination

1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide

1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education

1950 European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms with its Protocols 1, 2, 3, 5 and 8

1961 European Social Charter.

ARTICLE 4

TEMPORARY MEASURES

The United Kingdom is committed to establishing a climate in which women have de facto equality of opportunities with men and accepts that certain temporary measures can assist in this. Examples of such measures are contained under later Articles (eg in the field of education and training under Article 10).

PROTECTION OF MATERNITY

The United Kingdom recognises that in certain areas women require special treatment. Maternity and the protection of the foetus are such areas. These issues are dealt with under Articles 11 (Employment etc) and 12 (Health).

ARTICLE 5

ELIMINATION OF PREJUDICES AND STEREOTYPE ROLES

The Government's policy towards the media is that while it does not interfere in the day to day activities of media organisations, it wishes to provide opportunities for the development of new forms of mass media, particularly in the broadcasting sector, in order to widen competition and consumer choice. In addition, it has asked the established broadcasters to secure greater participation of independent producers in their television services. The Government believe that these policies will have an important incidental effect in breaking down traditional patterns of employment and participation and opening up new opportunities for involvement by women.

Broadcasters and newspapers' publishers are subject to the general law, including the Sex Discrimination Act, which applies to employment opportunities for both men and women in the media. There is a very significant involvement by women in broadcasting and journalism, and this has grown in recent years. In the broadcasting world there are a significant number of women in senior positions in broadcasting companies. The Government also has direct control over appointments to the governing boards of the broadcasting authorities, and here it has ensured that women are represented on the governing boards.

The media's portrayal of women generally reflects the patterns and attitudes of society around it. However, here again the greater range and diversity of programming should assist in providing opportunities for the portrayal of women in non traditional roles and contexts, and this in turn should assist in breaking down the stereotypes portrayed in more conventional contexts. The media in the UK is traditionally free of Government interference.

ADVERTISING

Advertising in the press is regulated by the British Code of Advertising Practice which sets out the rules which advertising men and women have agreed to follow. Discussions are currently taking place between the Advertising Standards Authority and the Women's Media Action Group with a view to drawing up a non-sexist advertising code. Television and radio advertisements are subject to a separate code, closely related to the British Code of Advertising Practice. In addition, the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 prohibits the publication of discriminatory advertisements which indicate, or might reasonably be understood as indicating, an intention by a person to do any act which is or might be unlawful by virtue of the Act. Section 38 states that

> "38. (1) It is unlawful to publish or cause to be published an advertisement which indicates, or might reasonably be understood as indicating, an intention by a person to do any act which is or might be unlawful by virtue of Part II or III

(2) Subsection (1) does not apply to an advertisement if the intended act would not in fact be unlawful.

(3) For the purposes of subsection (1), use of a job description with a sexual connotation (such as "waiter" "salesgirl", "postman" or "stewardess") shall be taken to indicate an intention to discriminate, unless the advertisement contains an indication to the contrary.

(4) The publisher of an advertisement made unlawful by subsection (1) shall not be subject to any liability under that subsection in respect of the publication of the advertisement if he proves -

(a) that the advertisement was published in reliance on a statement made to him by the person who caused it to be published to the effect that, by reason of the operation of subsection (2), the publication would not be unlawful, and

(b) that it was reasonable for him to rely on the statement.

(5) A person who knowingly or recklessly makes a statement such as is referred to in subsection (4) which in a material respect is false or misleading commits an offence, and shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding £400."

PORNOGRAPHY

There is no accepted definition as to what is regarded as "pornography" as the term does not appear in legislation. Nor are there statistics on the quantity of pornography available.

In 1985 (the last year for which figures are available) 226 persons were convicted in England and Wales of an offence under the Obscene Publications Acts; and 1.5 million obscene articles were seized by the police under the provisions of that Act in the Greater London area (statistics for seizures in the remainder of England and Wales are not available).

Since 1979, the Government has supported legislation to control

- indecent public displays (the Indecent Displays (Control) Act 1981)

- private cinema clubs (the Cinematograph (Amendment) Act 1982 consolidated in the Cinemas Act 1985)

- sex shops (Schedule 3 to the Local Government (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 1982
- video recordings (the Video Recordings Act 1984).

The Obscene Publications Act 1959 makes it an offence to "publish" an obscene article, the test of obscenity being whether the article would tend to deprave and corrupt those likely to read, see or hear it. "Publishing" is defined as distributing, circulating, selling, letting on hire giving, lending, offering for sale or for letting on hire and in the case of an article containing or embodying matter to be looked at or a record, showing, playing or projecting.

The Protection of Children Act 1978 makes it an offence to take, distribute or show indecent photographs or films of persons (whether male or female) under the age of 16, or to possess such material with a view to distributing or showing it.

Under the Video Recordings Act 1984 it is an offence (subject) to certain exemptions) to supply or possess for supply a video recording which has not been classified by the British Board of Film Classification (BBFC). The BBFC (which is wholly independent of Government) refuses to classify any work which is in their view obscene or otherwise undeserving of classification.

The Cinemas Act 1985 contains provisions enabling local authorities to prohibit the exhibition in cinemas of unsuitable material.

The Theatres Act 1968 makes it an offence to present or direct an obscene stage play the test of obscenity being whether the play, taken as a whole is likely to deprave and corrupt its audience.

Under the Broadcasting Act 1981 the Independent Broadcasting Authority has a duty to ensure that so far as possible programmes broadcast on independent television and radio contain nothing which offend against good taste and decency, is likely to be offensive to public feeling or incite or encourage crime. The Welsh Fourth Channel Authority has similar duties under the 1981 Act. The other broadcasting authority the British Broadcasting Corporation, has given similar undertakings in the Annex to its licence and agreement.

The Customs Consolidation Act 1976 prohibits the import of indecent or obscene articles.

The Post Office Act 1953 makes it an offence to send indecent material through the post.

The Indecent Displays (Control) Act 1981 makes it an offence (subject to certain exemptions) to display indecent material in a public place or where it can be seen from a public place

MATERNITY AS A SOCIAL FUNCTION

The Government recognises the need to stimulate a climate of equality of opportunity and hence the need for education programmes to eliminate stereotyped preconceptions of the roles of men and women. Indeed one of the statutory functions of the Equal Opportunities Commission (as described in Part I) is to undertake or assist (financially or otherwise) the undertaking by other persons of any research, and any education activities, which appear to the Commission necessary or expedient for the elimination of discrimination, the promotion of equality of opportunity between men and women generally, and to review the working of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and the Equal Pay Act 1970.

Education and the role of women in family life are dealt with in Articles 10, 15 and 16.

ARTICLE 6

SEXUAL EXPLOITATION OF WOMEN

The UK Government supports the aim of suppressing the traffic in persons and the exploitation of the prostitution of others. However, the UK Government voted against the adoption of the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others in 1949 because some of its provisions were drafted so as to affect a far wider range of people than those at which it was, and the title is, ostensibly aimed. Particularly Article 1 of the Convention requires the punishment of any person who procures the prostitution of another person without any reference to gain. This obviously affects a far wider range of people than commerical traffickers against whom the Convention was ostensibly directed. Thus some of the requirements are difficult to reconcile with existing English law and could only be incorporated into it at the cost of confusion and injustice.

That said, United Kingdom legislation has for the past century been based on the principles which underlie this convention.

It is not an offence for a woman to be a prostitute. Instead the law seeks to prevent the nuisance that can be caused to the inhabitants of a neighbourhood if prostitutes ply their trade in that area. Thus section 1 of the Street Offences Act 1959 makes it an offence for a prostitute to loiter or solicit in a street or public place for the purposes of prostitution.

The law also penalises those who encourage the prostitution of others for gain and those who live off the profits of this activity. The Sexual Offences Act 1956 makes it an offence:

(i) to procure a woman to become a prostitute;

(ii) to detain a woman against her will in a brothel;

(iii) to permit girls aged under 13, and between 13 and 16, or mentally subnormal females, to use premises for unlawful sexual intercourse; *

(iv) to cause or encourage the prostitution of a girl under 16 for whom a person is responsible or of a mentally subnormal woman;

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* [Note: A girl aged between 13 and 16 cannot consent to intercourse. If a man has sexual intercourse with her he is guilty of an offence of unlawful sexual intercourse under the 1956 Act even if she consented. However he has a defence to this charge if he reasonably believed that he was lawfully married to the girl or, if he is under 24 and has not previously been charged with a like offence, that he reasonably believed the girl was 16 or over. There is no similar defence to a charge of unlawful sexual intercourse with a girl under 13.] |

(v) for a man to live on the earnings of prostitution;

(vi) for a woman to exercise control over a prostitute for the purposes of gain;

(vii) to keep or manage a brothel, or to allow premises to be used as a brothel.

The Sexual Offences Act 1985 makes "kerbcrawling" a specific offence: it is an offence for a man to solicit a woman for the purpose of prostitution from or near a motor vehicle if he does so persistently or in a manner likely to cause annoyance to the woman solicited or nuisance to other people in the neighbourhood. It is also an offence for a man on foot persistently to solicit a woman in a street or public place.

The Criminal Law Revision Committee (CLRC) has reviewed the law on prostitution. The results of the review are contained in the Committee's 16th and 17th Reports: "Prostitution in the Street" (Cmnd 9329, published August 1984) and "Prostitution: Off-street activities" (Cmnd 9688, published December 1985).

The recommendations in the CLRC's 16th Report dealing with the soliciting of women by men for the purpose of prostitution were implemented in the Sexual Offences Act 1985. The report contains a number of other recommendations relating to soliciting by female prostitutes and homosexuals. These are still under consideration.

In their 17th Report, the CLRC recommended that the provisions relating to procuring should be retained largely in their present form, ie as contained in the Sexual Offences Act 1956. They recommended that the existing offences relating to living on the earnings of prostitution and the keeping and managing etc of brothels should be repealed and replaced by new schemes of offences. The recommendations are still under consideration.

There is no evidence that the practice of white slavery still exists in the UK. It would however be unlawful by virtue of section 22 of the Sexual Offences Act 1956 (which make it an offence to procure a woman to become, in any part of the world, a prostitute or to procure a woman to leave the UK, or her usual place of abode, intending her to become an inmate of a brothel) or section 23 (which makes it an offence to procure a girl under 21 to have unlawful sexual intercourse in any part of the world with a third person). These offences derive from section 2 of the Criminal Law Amendment Act 1885 and were originally created in order to suppress the "white slave" traffic.

A number of different factors lie behind any woman's decision to become a prostitute and a desire to increase her income may be one of them but we know of no evidence to confirm this supposition

No steps are being taken to abolish prostitution in that, as explained above, prostitution per se is not unlawful. Rather the law acts to control the nuisance caused either by the activities of prostitutes or by those who seek to use their services or exploit them for gain. There have been suggestions from time to time that the problems associated with prostitution might be lessened if brothels were made lawful. However, in their 17th Report the Criminal Law Revision Committee rejected the view that brothels should be legalised pointing out that this would no doubt increase their number. This in turn would increase the demand for the services of prostitutes and attract more girls into prostitution. The Government agrees with the Committee and has no plans to introduce legislation to legalise brothels.

The table below shows the number of women proceeded against or cautioned for offences under the 1959 Act (loitering or soliciting in a street or public place for the purpose of prostitution) in England and Wales for the years 1982 to 1985.

Year	Proceeded Against	Cautioned	Total
1982	6,072	7,903	13,975
1983	10,674	7,273	17,947
1984	8,838	4,855	13,693
1985	9,406	4,193	13,599

We do not have any estimates of how many women are engaged in prostitution. For obvious reasons, it would be difficult to make a reliable assessment.

The tables below show the numbers of males and females found guilty in England and Wales in the years 1982 to 1985 of (a) brothel keeping offences and (b) procuration offences. (The offences which come under the heading "procuration" for the purposes of the Criminal Statistics for England and Wales cover a wider range of offences than the procuration offences mentioned in paragraph 2 above).

a) Brothel keeping offences

	1982	1983	1984	1985
Males	27	39	23	26
Females	54	78	53	67

b) Procuration offences

	1982	1983	1984	1985
Males	314	285	323	473
Females	15	17	11	14

RAPE

Section 1(1) of the Sexual Offences Act 1956 makes it an offence for a man to rape a woman. Section 1(1) of the Sexual Offences (Amendment) Act 1976 provides that a man commits rape if

"(a) he has unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman who at the time of the intercourse does not consent it; and

(b) at that time he knows that she does not consent to the intercourse or he is reckless as to whether she consents to it."

Section 1(2) of the 1976 Act provides that, if a jury in a rape trial has to consider whether a man believed that a woman was consenting to sexual intercourse, "the presence or absence of reasonable grounds for such a belief is a matter to which the jury is to have regard, in conjunction with any other relevant matters, in considering whether he so believed".

The maximum penalty for the offences of rape and attempted rape is life imprisonment.

1,334 rapes were recorded in England and Wales in 1983; 1.433 in 1984 and 1,842 in 1985. Between 1975 and 1985 there was an average annual increase of 6% in the number of recorded rapes. There is evidence to suggest that much of the increase in recorded rapes is because victims are more likely to report them. The police have taken steps to ensure that victims are treated with sympathy and consideration. There have also been changes in police recording practices.

Tables A and B below show the number of males proceeded against for offences of rape in England and Wales in the years 1981 to 1985 and for the same period, the number of males given immediate imprisonment for rape by length of sentence.

The Criminal Law Revision Committee has recently reviewed the law on sexual offences. The Committee's 15th Report ("Sexual Offences", Cmnd 9213) was published in April 1984 This report contains many detailed recommendations, including a number relating to rape, and they are still being considered

In 1983 the Home Office issued Circular 25/1983 giving guidance to chief officers on the conduct of rape investigations. Last year, in the light of a report on violence against women published by the Women's National Commission, the Department supplemented this advice by issuing further guidelines in Circular 69/1986 which emphasise the need to protect victims' privacy and to ensure that they receive information about medical services and victim support organisations; this Circular also contains advice on the treatment of domestic violence Copies are attached.

Table A - MALES PROCEEDED AGAINST FOR OFFENCES OF RAPE

England and Wales 1981-1985 Number of defendants

	Proceeded Against	Found Guilty	Total for Sentence	Immediate Imprisonment	Otherwise Dealt With
1981	583	320	321	247	74
1982	705	402	403	317	86
1983	644	312	310	230	80
1984	653	331	332	209	123
1985	826	426	426	275	151

Table B - MALES GIVEN IMMEDIATE IMPRISONMENT FOR RAPE BY LENGTH OF SENTENCE

England and Wales 1981-1985 Number of defendants

	Up to 3 yrs	Over 3 yrs up to 5 yrs	Over 5 yrs up to 10 yrs	Over 10 yrs	Total
1981	117	87	32	11	247
1982	127	110	61	19	317
1983	91	78	47	14	230
1984	99	85	19	6	209
1985	103	103	54	15	275

SCOTLAND

In Scotland offences associated with prostitution such as soliciting, trading in prostitution, living off immoral earnings etc are contained in the Sexual Offences (Scotland) Act 1976 and the Civic Government (Scotland) Act 1982.

The Civic Government (Scotland) Act 1982 also provides for the control of sex shops and the display of obscene material. Other provisions against pornography include the application to Scotland of the Indecent Displays (Control) Act 1981, the Video Recordings Act 1984 and the Cinemas Act 1985.

Sexual assaults against women have also been identified as a cause for concern. Detailed guidance on the investigation of complaints of sexual assaults was issued to the police service in Scotland by the Scottish Home and Health Department in November 1985 in the light of the Scottish Office Social Research Study "Investigating Sexual Assault" and of consultations with the police, Scottish Women's Aid and Rape Crisis Centres. The guidance, which has been widely welcomed, emphasises the need for tact and sympathy in interviewing victims, gives advice on medical examinations (including the desirability of offering women the choice of being seen by a woman doctor) and focuses on other important aspects of such investigations. A further research report on the court stages of prosecution of sexual offences has recently been received and is now under consideration.

ARTICLE 7

A. ELECTIVE POSTS

Women have held the right to vote, both in national and local government elections, on an equal basis with men since 1928 under The Representation of the People Act 1928.

Women have been able to become Members of Parliament since 1918 (Parliament (Qualifications of Women) Act 1918). The Sex Disqualification Removal Act 1919 gave women the right to hold any Government post and declared that it was illegal to prevent a woman taking any job simply because of her sex.

There are 28 women Members of Parliament out of a total of 650 in the present House of Commons* and in 1985 there were 66 women in the House of Lords out of a total of 1185. There are 12 British women Members of the European Parliament. The UK currently has a woman Prime Minister and there are a total of 7 other women ministers in the following Departments:-

Department of Education and Science
Foreign and Commonwealth Office (2)
Department of Health and Social Security (2)
Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food
Government Whip (House of Lords)

In addition, Baroness Elles, a British MEP is the Vice-President of the European Parliament and 4 other women hold Parliamentary Office in the opposition parties.

While women play an active part in the life of all four major political parties in Great Britain, each party is aware of the need to rectify women's underrepresentation in the House of Commons. However, they differ over whether this requires positive discrimination. These parties have nominated between them 216 women parliamentary candidates for the next general election.

B. EMPLOYMENT IN THE CIVIL SERVICE

It is the policy of the Civil Service, in all departments and grades, that all eligible persons will have equal opportunity for employment and advancement in the Civil Service on the basis of their ability and qualifications and fitness for the work. The Civil Service was a pioneer in the field of equal pay and equal pay for like work was introduced for all staff in 1961. No changes were required to the pay system when the Equal Pay Act came into force. The policies on the age of retirement make no distinctions between men and women.

Under the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, certain Civil Service posts are exempt and are restricted to one sex.

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* Following the General Election on 11 June 1987 there are 41 women Members of Parliament.

Selection

The policy is implemented in all areas of Civil Service selection and includes providing Board Members with detailed guidance and training on the general principles of selection interviewing including the avoidance of discrimination on grounds of sex and marital status. Statistics show that forty-one per cent of the appointments made at Executive Officer level and above in 1985 were filled by women while, at the beginning of 1986, forty-eight per cent of the total non-industrial Civil Service workforce was female.

Training

All training in the Civil Service is equally available to men and women. When a women is unable to take advantage of training which entails being away from home, it may be possible to provide an alternative form of training. Positive action training for women managers has featured in the Civil Service College programme for a number of years, and similar training is now being offered by several government departments, frequently including women at clerical as well as managerial levels.

From April 1986, departments have been required to collect statistics by gender on the numbers of men and women who have undergone training. These figures will be monitored over time to highlight any areas of discrepancy between men and women in access to training.

Promotion and Appraisal

There is no right to promotion in the Civil Service. Every civil servant has the right to be considered for promotion. Research on promotion has looked at the rates of promotion of men and women in the Civil Service and has examined attitudes. The results suggest that certain stereotypes are still visible in the way managers manage; there is a need to address these through further training and guidance, and to provide suitable encouragement to all groups of staff, backed up by proper training and development. Specific guidance is given to all Board Members on the avoidance of discrimination in promotion boards. A new appraisal system has recently been developed which lays great emphasis on the need to carry out appraisal with reference to actual achievements rather than personal qualities or irrelevant factors such as sex and marital status etc. This fundamental message is conveyed in all the training material which supports the new reform.

A woman who is absent from work because of pregnancy or confinement and does not qualify for paid maternity leave, will be paid maternity pay for a period of absence of up to six weeks, even if she has resigned and does not intend to return to work in the civil service after her confinement, provided that she:

a) continues to be employed as a civil servant (whether or not she is at work) until immediately before the beginning of the eleventh week before the expected week of confinement;

b) has at the beginning of that eleventh week given continuous service for at least two years;

c) works at least sixteen hours a week or (after five years service) at least eight hours a week;

d) informs her department (in writing if so requested) at least three weeks before her absence begins, or as soon as reasonably practicable, that she will be absent from work because of pregnancy or confinement; and

e) if requested to do so by her department, produces a statement from a registered medical practitioner or a certified midwife giving the expected week of confinement.

This follows the requirements of the Statutory Maternity pay regulations.

A woman who is absent from work because of pregnancy or confinement has the right to work in the same grade and working the same hours at any time before the end of a period of twenty nine weeks beginning with the week in which the date of confinement falls, subject to giving three weeks written notice on the day on which she proposes to return. A woman will not have the right to return to work unless:

a) she continues to be employed as a civil servant (whether or not she is at work) until immediately before the beginning of the eleventh week before the expected week of confinement;

b) she has at the beginning of that eleventh week been continuously employed for a period of not less than two years;

c) she informs her department in writing at least three weeks before her absence begins, or as soon as reasonably practicable:

    i) that she will be absent from work because of pregnancy or confinement;

    ii) that she intends to return to work;

    iii) of the expected week, or if appropriate the actual date of confinement

d) if requested to do so by her department, she produces for inspection a statement from a registered medical practitioner or a certified midwife giving the expected week of confinement.

A woman who.

a) resigns because she does not then intend to return to work but

b) later wishes to return because of a radical change in circumstances has no absolute right to return but should be allowed to do so if at all possible. If she returns to work before the end of forty-one weeks beginning with the week in which the date of confinement falls her resignation will be cancelled and the period of absence will be counted as paid and/or unpaid leave.

Child Care

The Civil Service is carrying out a number of measures to help combine family obligations with work responsibilities.

Departments provide welfare services that are available to all employees. Welfare Officers are on hand to advise civil servants on maternity leave and are available to be of practical support when the civil servant returns to work. All civil servants with child care responsibilities may seek help from their welfare officers.

In some areas there are enough interested civil servants to justify setting up and running a holiday play scheme. Approximately twenty-five thousand civil servants were invited to take advantage of Civil Service holiday play schemes in Summer 1985.

The voluntary 'Care Parent Scheme', places civil servants' children with "compatible" local care parents. The scheme's janiser then takes the role of "honest broker" receiving from the natural parent the fees that will be paid to the care parent along with a small administrative fee.

Centrally the Welfare Advisor's Office distributes guidance based on the experience of departments in setting up and running childcare projects. This places weight upon both the holiday play scheme and care parent approaches. These approaches have few fixed costs and can operate with a low level of demand and yet retain the capacity to grow to meet increased fees.

Special Protection

Departments will consider sympathetically any requests from female members of staff working with Visual Display Units who are pregnant or likely to become pregnant, to carry out alternative duties at this time.

Staff in Post Figures

The following table shows the distribution of staff in the Non Industrial Home Civil Service by sex and grade as at 1.7.1986.

GRADE LEVEL	MALE	FEMALE	%	TOTAL
Grade 5 and above	3,040	235	7	3,275
Grade 6 and above	4,540	471	9	5,010
Grade 7 and above	12,430	1,105	8	13,535
SEO	19,759	1,682	8	21,441
HEO	41,454	8,543	17	49,997
EO	84,857	42,858	33	127,715
CO	67,302	108,399	62	175,701
CA	23,802	82,478	78	106,280
TOTAL	257,184	245,771	49%	502,955

C. PUBLIC APPOINTMENTS

The UK Government is committed to extending the influence of women in advisory and policy making bodies and Ministers make every effort to ensure that a good field of candidates, including women, are considered for appointments, not on the basis of their sex but on their qualities, abilities and experience. The representation of women on public bodies, currently about 19%, does not represent the part that women can legitimately expect to play and the Government has welcomed the work done by representative organisations, and most recently by the Women Into Public Life Campaign, in identifying women with the necessary qualifications and putting forward their names to the Public Appointments Unit and sponsoring Departments. The Government has given the Women's National Commission detailed information about appointments, including qualifications and eligibility criteria, which the Women's National Commission has taken steps to draw to the attention of women's organisations. It is hoped that this will increase the number of women's names which are put to Departments as possible candidates for appointment. The Government will continue through this and other means to try to ensure that the number of women who are appointed is increased.

Scotland

In Scotland women are well represented on the public bodies to which the Secretary of State for Scotland makes appointments. Around 30% of those appointed to public bodies are women. In particular, so far as tribunals are concerned, more women are appointed than men. Women are less well represented, however, on Executive non departmental public bodies, and on advisory committees. The Secretary of State for Scotland is keen to increase further the representation of women in public bodies and has instructed that women should always be considered for the vacancies to which he makes appointments. In addition, he is attempting to secure more nominations of women who are able and willing to take part in this form of public service.

Wales

The Secretary of State for Wales makes over 1,000 appointments and currently 18% are women. The appointments cover a range of services including economic, health and social services and education. He is seeking more suggestions for consideration for appointment.

D. TRADE UNIONS AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

Women are free to participate in Trade Unions and non-governmental organisations. The Trade Union Council is currently undertaking a survey to assess the number of women members and elected union representatives. Until that is complete there are no firm statistics on women's participation in trade unions, although it is known women constitute over 30% of overall TUC membership. Women play a large part in non-governmental organisations, as witnessed by the fact that over 80 women's organisations attended the seminar on this report.

ARTICLE 8

A. DIPLOMATIC SERVICE

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office is an Equal Opportunities Employer to which the Sex Discrimination Act and other relevant legislation applies. It pursues an active policy of promoting equal opportunity for men and women alike. Three Equal Opportunities Officers have been appointed to monitor application of this policy in the Diplomatic and Aid Wings of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office.

Recruitment

All Selection Boards receive guidance on equal opportunities employment (see Article 7 above). As far as possible Boards include women members, and the criteria for Selection Boards decisions are recorded at every stage of the recruitment process.

Women in the Diplomatic Service

In December 1986 women comprised 34% of all Diplomatic Service staff and 22% of career diplomats (Attache and above). Partly as a result of the rule that women should resign on marriage (abolished in 1972) there is a relatively small number of women of Counsellor or Ambassadorial rank. However the larger percentages in the lower grades should eventually work through into more senior grades. Annex D gives statistical details of women in the Diplomatic Service.

Joint Postings

There are increasing numbers of officers whose spouses are also members of the Service. Requests for joint postings are dealt with as sympathetically as possible But operational requirements may not always make these possible. Currently 62 Diplomatic Service couples are on joint postings. Special Unpaid Leave is available to Diplomatic Service officers where joint postings cannot be arranged and 15 officers are currently availing themselves of this.

Flexible Working Hours

Flexible Working Hours were introduced in the FCO on a voluntary basis in October 1986 in order to allow staff greater flexibility in adjusting their working hours to fit in with domestic and other commitments.

Special Unpaid Leave

The principle of a more flexible approach to requests for Special Unpaid Leave (SUPL) for domestic reasons (eg to look after young children or elderly parents to have a baby, to cope with serious family illness) has been agreed. Details are being considered.

Part-time Work and Job Sharing

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office also hope to be able to increase the opportunities for part time work and job sharing in the Office. Problems over eg travel costs, allowances and accommodation make it difficult to provide similar openings abroad other than on a locally engaged basis.

Pregnancy abroad

Statutory rights exists for officers who become pregnant while serving at an overseas Post. However, more flexible guidelines are being considered. Sympathetic consideration is given to requests from women officers to take time off at Post to have a baby and then return to work and complete a normal posting.

Information

Efforts are being made to increase awareness of this area of personnel policy. A session on equal opportunity is already included in management courses and will now feature more prominently. Line Managers who need further advice or information can consult the Equal Opportunity Officer

Postings Policy

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office is firmly committed to develop the careers of all members of the Service on equal terms. There are no posts to which the Office would not send female officers.

It is also inadmissible under the Act to reject a single officer on the grounds that the job needed to be done by a married couple whose female half could take on the traditional duties of a diplomatic wife. The Diplomatic Service is not entitled to assume that it can call as a matter of course on the contribution of a spouse, though the Service values very highly the contribution which is so frequently made.

B. WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

There is no bar in the UK on women seeking employment in international organisations.

ARTICLE 9

A. NATIONALITY

The British Nationality Act 1981 which came into effect on 1 January 1983 reflects the principle that men and women have equal rights in the matter of acquiring, changing or retaining their nationality. Women may now transmit their citizenship to children born overseas on exactly the same terms as men. Dual nationality is not prohibited under United Kingdom law, so no person, male or female, can lose British citizenship involuntarily. The spouse of a British citizen does not automatically acquire British citizenship on marriage.

Under Section 2 of the British Nationality Act 1981 women have the same right as men to transmit their British citizenship to their children born after 1 January 1983, except that women but not men are able to transmit citizenship to children born out of wedlock (Section 50(9) British Nationality Act 1981)

The Act contains several temporary and transitional provisions extending certain rights conferred under previous nationality law, which treat men and women differently The United Kingdom's acceptance of Article 9 was on the understanding that it should not be taken to invalidate the continuation of the temporary and transitional measures after ratification of the Convention. a) and b) favour women and c) favours men:

a) Registration as a British citizen by virtue of marriage

For a period of 5 years (ie until 31 December 1987) a married woman who under previous nationality law had an entitlement to acquire her husband's citizenship (the citizsenship of the United Kingdom and Colonies) on application may continue to exercise her right to register as a British citizen by virtue of marriage, provided the marriage subsists and the husband has not renounced his British citizenship. Where the marriage has ceased or the husband has renounced his citizenship the woman's registration is at the discretion of the Home Secretary. (Section 3 British Nationality Act 1981).

b) Resumption of British citizenship

The circumstances are that if a person had the right under previous legislation to resume citizenship of the United Kingdom and Colonies by registration because of an appropriate qualifying connection with the United Kingdom (eg birth or descent, or, if a woman, marriage to such a person before 1 January 1983) he or she is entitled to registration as a British citizen under section 10 of the British Nationality Act 1981. This is a transitory provision in that it can only apply to those people who possessed these legal rights before 1983. Only a woman can qualify to resume a previously renounced citizenship on the grounds of marriage whereas a man cannot.

c) **Registration of certain minor children as British citizens**

Section 9 of the British Nationality Act 1981 preserves for 5 years (until 31 December 1987) the right under previous nationality law of a man (but not a woman) who is a British citizen to acquire British citizenship for his children born in a foreign country who would not automatically be British citizens at birth.

B. IMMIGRATION

On ratification, the United Kingdom also reserved the right to apply such immigration legislation governing entry into, stay in, and departure from the United Kingdom as it may deem necessary from time to time.

The basic framework for the United Kingdom's Immigration Rules is contained in the statement of changes in Immigration Rules laid before Parliament on 9 February 1983 (HC 169). The Rules relating to marriage in this document were similar to those contained in the 1980 Immigration Rules (HC 394) which were the subject of 3 test cases considered by the European Court of Human Rights in a judgement dated 28 May 1985 concerning the treatment of spouses of persons settled in the United Kingdom.

While the European Court accepted as legitimate the aim of the Immigration Rules in protecting the domestic labour market, this was not considered a sufficiently weighty reason for the less favourable provisions for the admission of husbands of women living here than for wives of men settled in this country. The Court found that there had been a violation of Article 14 with Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights on the grounds of sex discrimination. The Government acted promptly to change the Immigration Rules to comply with the Court's judgement. The new provisions contained in the statement of changes in Immigration Rules laid before Parliament on 15 July 1985 (HC 503) which came into effect on 26 August 1985 bring into line the provisions under which husbands and fiances may join women settled in this country with those providing for the admission of wives and fiancées.

Section 1(5) of the Immigration Act provides that the Immigration Rules shall be so framed that Commonwealth citizens settled in the United Kingdom at the coming into force of the Act and their wives and children are not, by virtue of anything in the Rules, any less free to come and go than if the Act had not been passed

The effect of the provision is that the Rules prevailing before the Act came into force on 1 January 1973 (Cmnd 4295 4298) should be compared with those currently prevailing. If the earlier ones are less restrictive, then it is those that should apply.

The provision is discriminatory in that, although women and men enjoy the protection of section 1(5) in their own right on equal terms and although the benefits extend equally to the children of men and women they do not extend to the husbands of women

Commonwealth citizens. Wives of male Commonwealth citizens are however covered. The Government, in responding to the European court judgement, confirmed that it expected to introduce legislation amending this transitional provision. Where section 1(5) applies, the Rules which relate to Commonwealth citizens are also discriminatory as they apply to children over 18. Paragraph 40 of Cmnd 4298 permits the admission of unmarried daughters under 21 who formed part of the family unit overseas provided the whole family is coming for settlement. To qualify under this paragraph, sons must, in addition, be fully dependent.

Moreover, a widowed daughter of any age may be admitted provided she is dependent on a parent here. Her own dependants may also be admitted with her. There is no equivalent provision for a widowed son.

The corresponding Rules (Cmnd 4296) for foreign nationals are in slightly different terms. They also provide for the admission of an unmarried daughter over 18 and under 21 but sons of that age will only be admitted if also fully dependent. There is no provision for widows. However, daughters but not sons over 21 may also be admitted to join a widowed father here who needs her services as housekeeper/companion. There is no provision to admit sons to join widowed mothers.

The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, which is charged with supervising the execution of the Court's judgement under the Convention, has concluded that the steps taken by the Government comply with the judgement.

HC 503 has had the following effects where the wife is not covered by section 1(5) through her husband:

(i) The husbands of women who are settled here may now apply to enter the United Kingdom for settlement on the same basis as the wives of settled men.

(ii) Both fiancés and fiancées now require entry clearances prior to travelling to the United Kingdom for marriage. Husbands and wives seeking entry also require entry clearances and in both fiancé(e) and spouse categories the partner in the United Kingdom must show that they are able to provide adequate maintenance and accommodation, both at the time of entry to the United Kingdom and thereafter, without recourse to public funds.

(iii) Wives as well as husbands must now satisfy the "primary purpose" and other tests set out in paragraph 46 of HC 503.

(iv) Both husbands and wives are now granted leave to remain for one year in the first instance and may apply for indefinite leave to remain in the United Kingdom at the end of this period if the marriage still subsists and the couple intend to live permanently together.

Some further differences of treatment between men and women under the Immigration Act and Rules still exist. In particular, the wives of those in the following categories may join their husbands for the duration of their authorised stay students, people coming for employment, self employment or businessmen, persons of independent means, writers or artists. There is no similar provision for the husbands of women in these categories although there is no restriction on the wife of a man in any of the above categories taking employment unless the husband is so restricted. Where the husband is exceptionally admitted he is normally not allowed to take employment. These distinctions are based on the grounds that men continue to be more economically active than women and on the need, at a time of high unemployment, to continue to protect the domestic labour market. Nevertheless, these provisions are under review.

A further area of discrimination is contained in the provisions for making a deportation order against the wife and family of a man who has been ordered to be deported, provided that they are not settled in their own right. No such provision exists in the case of a man whose wife has been ordered to be deported.

Other parts of the Immigration Rules continue to discriminate in favour of women. There is no provision for the admission of male au pairs whilst girls from Western Europe may be admitted as such for a maximum of 2 years. Dependent widows of any age may be admitted for settlement but widowers must be over 65. Finally, fully dependent unmarried daughters over 18 but under 21 forming part of a family unit may be admitted for settlement. There is no corresponding provision for sons.

Immigration of Students

Students who have adequate funds to support themselves will normally be admitted for an appropriate period and made subject to a condition restricting their freedom to take employment. Such students are permitted to supplement their funds by working provided that the employment is approved by the local office of the Department of Employment. To qualify for this approval the prospective employer must complete the appropriate application form and the students must produce a letter from their college confirming that the employment will not interfere with their studies. The Department of Employment will not give approval if there is other suitable labour available for the job within daily travelling distance or if the wages and conditions are less favourable than those offered for similar work in the same area. In the case of a male student subject to a condition restricting but not prohibiting his employment his wife and dependent children are usually admitted without conditions on their stay, and may work if they wish to supplement the family income.

There is no provision under the Rules to admit the husbands of women students unless they qualify for admission in their own right. However in compassionate circumstances eg if the husband has to care for young children to enable his wife to study or if he, because of some incapacity, requires special care and attention from his wife permission may be given for the husband to accompany or join his wife, provided that there is no doubt that he will leave when his wife leaves and that there will be adequate support and accommodation for him throughout his stay. The husband of a woman student who is sponsored by the British Government or the British Council under the Commonwealth Scholarships and Fellowships Plan or who is a Marshall Scholar may also be permitted to accompany or join his wife provided that there is evidence that the wife is receiving a married person's allowance. In all cases the husband is admitted on conditions prohibiting employment.

ARTICLE 10

EDUCATION

A. GENERAL

British education aims to develop fully the abilities of individuals, both young and old, for their own benefit and that of society as a whole. Compulsory schooling takes place between the ages of 5 and 16, although some provision is made for children under 5, and many pupils remain at school beyond the minimum leaving age. Post-school education (mainly at universities, polytechnics and colleges of further and higher education) is organised flexibly to provide a wide range of opportunities for academic and vocational education and continuing study throughout life.

For many years British education has been characterised by change, and much of the post-1945 period has also been marked by growth; large increases in the number of pupils, the expansion of higher educational opportunities, and increased expenditure. Although the process of change continues, recent years have seen increasing reassessment and consolidation with a view to making the best use of resources in the light of difficult economic circumstances and a substantial drop in the birth rate. The number of primary schoolchildren has already fallen sharply, and the decline in numbers is now affecting secondary schools, although this is partly offset by the greater numbers staying on at school. This has led to a reduced demand for new teachers (although there is still a need for more teachers of certain subjects such as mathematics) and teacher training has been reorganised to cope with the new situation while retaining flexibility for future expansion. Rationalisation of courses in higher education is being undertaken with the aim of encouraging institutions to become more efficient, and more flexible and responsive to the economic and social needs of the country.

Policies

The Government's education policies for schools are designed to increase parental choice of school and involvement in school organisation, to allow local authorities to organise publicly maintained schools according to local needs. A major priority is to raise standards of achievement both by securing a broader and more balanced curriculum for all pupils and by reforming the system of examinations taken at about the age of 16. Measures are also being taken to improve the quality of teaching by better selection, training and deployment of teachers.

Special attention is also being given both to the provision of better pre-vocational education and training in schools and colleges for the 14 to 18 year old age group, and to the 40 per cent of pupils in the final years of compulsory education for whom public examinations at 16 plus are not appropriate. It is recognised that co-operation between the education system and industry can help young people to acquire the skills necessary to maintain Britain's position as a leading exporter of manufactured goods. Many organisations already work to improve such links, and further contacts are being encouraged. An important objective has been to extend the knowledge and use of microcomputers in schools.

In line with the Government's concern to maintain British expertise in science and technology, a shift in provision towards these areas is occurring in higher education. The vocational element of courses in the non-advanced further education sector is being increased.

Schools

Parents are required by law to see that their children receive efficient full-time education, at school or elsewhere, between the ages of 5 and 16.

Boys and girls are taught together in most primary schools, and some 86 per cent of pupils in maintained secondary schools in England and Wales and nearly 63 per cent in Northern Ireland attend mixed schools. In Scotland nearly all secondary schools are mixed. Most independent schools for younger children are co-educational; the majority providing secondary education are single-sex, although the number of mixed schools is growing.

No fees are charged to parents of children at maintained schools, and books and equipment are free, although in Northern Ireland a small proportion of grammar school pupils is admitted on a fee-paying basis.

Post School Education

Post-school education for young people above school-leaving age is provided at a range of levels. More than a third of young people receive some form of post-school education, compared with a fifth in 1965, while some 14 per cent of young people in the 18 year old age group entered full-time higher education courses in 1985. The number of degrees awarded per age group is comparable with that of other developed countries. The proportion of people in all further and higher education in Britain also compares well, taking into account the large proportion of part-time students and the large group of students receiving professional training in firms rather than in educational institutions.

Higher education (postgraduate, first degree and other courses of a standard higher than GCE A-level) is provided at universities, polytechnics and other colleges. The term 'further education' is used to define all post school education outside the universities, and includes non-advanced courses for 16 to 19 year olds who have left school. Much of the provision outside the universities is broadly vocational in purpose; it extends from lower-level technical and commercial courses to specialised courses of various kinds and advanced courses for those aiming at higher-level posts in commerce, industry and administration or taking up a variety of professions (for example, town planning or estate management). The system is flexible and permits the student to acquire whatever qualifications his or her capabilities and time allow.

A particular feature of the further education system is its strong ties with commerce and industry; co-operation between the business world and colleges is encouraged by the Government and its agencies, and employers are often involved in designing courses. There is also an important link between further education colleges and industrial training schemes; the colleges provide, for example, much of the education element in such programmes as the Youth Training Scheme, which is sponsored by the Manpower Services Commission. (The Scheme offers the opportunity of a year's planned work experience and training to all 16 and 17 year old school-leavers who are unemployed).

Institutions

The principal institutions of post-school education are the universities, the polytechnics, the Scottish central institutions and some hundreds of other colleges which are maintained or assisted from public funds; these have a variety of titles including colleges of higher or further education, colleges of technology, colleges of art, agricultural colleges and adult education centres. There are also many independent specialist establishments, such as secretarial and correspondence colleges and colleges teaching English as a foreign language; a number of voluntary and private bodies providing cultural and general education, sometimes with assistance from local education authorities; and a large number of other education and training schemes run by public or private organisations, or firms.

Finance

Most establishments for post-school education are either maintained or assisted from public funds Some undertake training, research or consultancy for commercial firms, making charges which broadly reflect the economic cost of provision, and a number have endowments or receive grants or gifts from foundations and benefactors.

Nearly 80 per cent of universities' expenditure is financed by the Government, the major part being made available through a block grant to the University Grants Committee, which allocates the funds to individual universities and certain other institutions. The Independent University of Buckingham receives no assistance from public funds although its students can apply for mandatory grants. The Northern Ireland Department of Education makes grants direct to the two local universities on recommendations from the University Grants Committee.

Funds for advanced courses in polytechnics and other colleges of further education maintained by local authorities are allocated centrally. The National Advisory Body for Local Authority Higher Education advises the Government on how these resources should be allocated in England; a Welsh Advisory Body has a similar function in Wales. There is no equivalent organisation in Scotland but the

Scottish Territory Education Advisory Council has general advisory functions.

Local education authorities are directly responsible for the funding of most non-advanced further education courses. In order, however, to make training and vocational education more relevant to employment needs responsibility for a quarter of the budget spend by the authorities in England and Wales on work-related courses has been placed with the Manpower Services Commission.

Students

Some 972,000 students were taking full-time courses in 1984-85, including sandwich courses (where substantial periods of full time study alternate with periods of supervised experience on a relevant job) at universities and major establishments of further education in Britain (1982-83 figures). Of these about 292,000 were at universities while another 274.000 follow advanced courses outside universities, at colleges of further and higher education, polytechnics and Scottish central institutions. More than 406,000 take non-advanced courses, most of them studying for recognised vocational or educational qualifications.

There are in addition about 3.2 million part time students, over 542 000 of whom are released by their employers for further education during working hours. Many of the remainder take part in adult education classes

Over 90 per cent of full time students on advanced courses are helped by grants from public funds which are mandatory for those students taking first degree and other comparable courses who qualify under national rules (Grants for other courses may be given at the discretion of a local education authority. Grants cover tuition fees and maintenance, but where parents can afford to contribute this is taken into account. They are awarded by local education authorities in England and Wales up to first degree level; in Scotland by the Scottish Education Department; and in Northern Ireland mainly by the education and library boards. For postgraduate study and research grants are offered by the education departments and the research councils. Some scholarships are available from endowments and from particular industries or companies.

B. LEGISLATION AND GOVERNMENT POLICY ON SEX DISCRIMINATION

In recent years there has been a clear commitment by the UK Government to promoting equal opportunities in schools and in particular to encourage girls in those areas of the curriculum where they have not fully participated in the past. The Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 has provided the legislative framework circumstances. Specifically, sections 47 and 48 allow for training to be offered to one sex only where it can be shown that that sex is under represented in a certain area of work.

Responsibility for education provision in the UK is shared by central government, the local education authorities (education authorities in Scotland and education boards in Northern Ireland) and teachers. The Government's oversight of the system is largely exercised through important specific functions, relating, for example, to teacher supply and training, the pattern of school organisation and the inspection of schools. Local authorities are concerned with the administration of schools and curricular policy at the local level. They also recruit and employ teachers.

The Secretaries of State for Education, for Wales and for Scotland are empowered to intervene directly in cases where they judge that discriminatory practices other than those relating to employment have occurred in an educational institution funded by a local authority. The Secretaries of States' powers do not prejudice the right of complainants to proceed through the County Courts, which are also the means of pursuing complaints concerning institutions not covered by the Secretaries of States' powers, eg the universities.

Curriculum Initiatives

Whilst curriculum developments in individual schools are largely a matter for local decision, central government has issued a number of policy statements in recent years which are aimed at influencing thinking about the education of girls and for the reduction of sex bias in the curriculum. These statements emphasise the importance of keeping career opportunities equally open to boys and girls. They encourage girls to consider opportunities available to them if they continue the study of science and technology set out in the "School Curriculum" of March 1981, the policy statement "Science 5-16" of March 1985, the White Paper "Better Schools" of March 1985 and the Cockroft Report on mathematics which places emphasis on discussion methods and project work and teaching styles which appear to motivate and involve girl pupils more effectively. The new General Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations which will replace present examinations at 16 plus will conform to national criteria which include the need to ensure that syllabuses and examinations are free of all forms of bias including that of gender. HM Inspectorate in England and Wales have published discussion papers and reports on good practice, for example on "Girls and Science" and "Schools and Working Life".

In addition to the Government initiatives which have sought to influence curricular aims and objectives in respect of equal opportunities, local education authorities and schools themselves have taken their own initiatives in the forumulation and development work full time in this area Others have advisers often women who are asked to take responsibility for equal opportunities in addition to their subject responsibility

Preparation for Working Life

Central Government has sought to influence local developments in a number of ways Three major special educational initiatives centrally funded have emphasised the need to avoid sex stereotyping in courses and teaching materials First an increasing number of secondary pupils aged 14 16 are participating in the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative which aims to promote technical and vocational elements within a broad and balanced framework of general education across the ability range. All projects supported under this initiative must not only comply with a requirement that equal opportunities should be available to young people of both sexes who should normally be educated together on courses within each project but also that the context of courses and the choices available to TVEI students should as far as possible avoid sex stereotyping

Similarly the Certificate of Pre Vocational Education which aims to provide courses at age 17+ mainly for young people of lower academic ability has as one of its main aims the promotion of equality of opportunity.

The Government funded Micro Electronics Programme for schools has given particular emphasis to the development of courses and teaching materials which avoid stereotyping The programme has also supported two specific projects which aim to find out whether girls react differently from boys to the material developed to give children an awareness of information technology.

There are some encouraging signs for girls and women in all this. The growth in the number of girls at school taking chemistry has been quite marked and there are some signs of an acceleration in physics as well. Nevertheless the contrast between the number of boys and girls remains acute particularly in physics.

On the other hand, if the numbers taking and passing public examination in all subjects are taken into account girls do better than boys. They now outnumber boys in examinations in all categories except the group taking and passing three or more A levels: here boys remain slightly ahead of girls but the gap has narrowed in recent years The movement by girls towards equality has so far been mainly associated with the pursuit of examination success rather than with wider subject choices

Non Traditional Careers

Executive Shadows. The Executive Shadow Scheme enabled sixth form school students to "shadow" or accompany business executives (mainly on a one to one basis) in the course of their work for a week in 1986. The scheme was piloted as a means of encouraging girls to consider careers in industry, but was then expanded nationally to include schoolboys. Nevertheless the initial impetus has ensured a better take up among women (nearly 13% compared with a 3% membership of the Institute of Directors) than might otherwise have been expected.

Challenge of Management. The Department of Trade and Industry provides support to the Industrial Society for the courses it runs on the challenge of management which are designed to give sixth form schoolgirls an insight into industrial management.

Women's Training Roadshows. The Department of Trade and Industry has supported the Women's Training Roadshows which the Women's National Commission has taken round the country to encourage women of all ages into a wider range of jobs.

Equal Opportunities Commission's WISE bus. The Department of Trade and Industry has also helped fund the EOC's WISE (Women into Science and Engineering) bus.

Department of Trade and Industry Videos. The Department of Trade and Industry's Education Unit makes available to schools a series of videos on women and engineering, information technology and related issues.

IT Skills Shortage. An Information Technology Skills Shortage Committee was set up under Department of Trade and Industry chairmanship and drew attention to women's potential in the information technology industry at a time of growing skills shortages and declining school and university populations. They called on companies to tailor their recruitment and career structures to encourage women to make their careers in information technology. A recent study by the Institute of Manpower Studies which was part funded by the Department of Trade and Industry indicates that industry is heeding the call.

Industry Year 1986/Industry Matters. 1986 was Industry Year in the UK. The Industry Year programme was aimed at emphasizing the important contribution which industry makes to society. A significant aspect of this was the effort which was made to eliminate prejudices and stereotypes in relation to industry. The campaign continues under the Industry Matters banner.

Fellowship Scheme for Women Returners to Science and Engineering
The aim of the Fellowship Scheme is to provide

achieved by offering flexible part time fellowships in University Departments with each Fellow obtaining retraining in research and undertaking a high level research project under the guidance of a University supervisor

Returners Register. The Department of Trade and Industry is funding a study to look at the feasibility of establishing a register of people who wish to return to work on a part time home based fixed term or school term only basis It will be open to applicants with qualifications in mathematics science and engineering at the level of BTEC diploma HNC degree or above and some working experience prior to taking a career break for family reasons It is intended that the register will be self financing

Education Personnel and Teacher Training

The role of staff in bringing about change and improvement is crucial All initial teacher training courses in England Wales and Northern Ireland must include gender issues and must prepare students to guard against preconceptions based on a pupil s sex All such courses must be approved by the Secretary of State The content of courses of in service training for teachers is primarily a matter to the providers of training in consultation with local education authorities However Her Majesty s Inspectorate in England and Wales has in recent years promoted a small number of regional in service training courses on different aspects of sex stereo typing and has included a course in "Promoting Equal Opportunities in Schools" in the Department of Education and Science s national short course programme The Equal Opportunities Commission and the School Curriculum Development Committee have worked closely in bringing together working groups of teachers advisers and administrators to devise approaches which may be used to reduce sex discrimination in schools

Selective local initiatives aimed at improving the participation of women in the teaching of mathematics science and technology include

> the development of a two year part time PGCE for trainee mathematics teachers The course uses distance learning and has been specially designed to meet the needs of women with domestic responsibilities;
>
> an Access course for women wishing to teach Craft Design and Technology

Teachers in maintained schools are employed by the local education authorities Women are well represented in the teaching profession in terms of total numbers but are significantly under represented in teaching Craft Design and Technology and Physics and Chemistry and in positions of authority in schools In primary schools men five out of every six headships. There is no evidence to suggest systematic discrimination against women in the selection procedures Nevertheless more women must be encouraged to apply for the more senior positions The previous Secretary of State for Education and Science has exhorted employers to reflect on the methods by which they select headteachers and to consider whether in particular those methods are fair between the sexes

Classroom Practice

Her Majesty's Inspectorate have emphasised the need for greater understanding and awareness of the possibility of latent discrimination in Schools the hidden curriculum and of the different treatment of boys and girls in the classroom and in nursery schools At present only in a few schools has it been possible for work in individual subjects to be successfully underpinned by a whole school policy for reducing sex differentiation a policy co ordinated by the head and senior members of staff and supported by parents and teachers This has been approached in certain schools by effective teaching skillful timetabling carefully structured option schemes and appropriate guidance for parents and pupils when choices have to be made

Scholarships and Study Grants

Government policy in relation to scholarships and awards schemes is to provide equality of opportunity for women and not to discriminate against or in favour of women The policy extends to overseas students on scholarships and other study grants

The Government and British Council funded schemes operate in accordance with the general policy providing equal opportunity (as stated above); where nominations are made by the sending government they of course take account of that government's priorities

In general it is not United Kingdom policy to provide awards to allow married students to be accompanied by their families This is because the very high cost would considerably reduce the number of awards which could be offered To give married/accompanied awards to women only would be discriminatory

The Department of Education and Science (DES) volume of statistics contains tables showing by country of origin broad subject groups and different levels of study the numbers of male and female overseas students In addition the DES statistical bulletin on overseas students has in the past included a table showing trends in total overseas student numbers by sex

Responsibility for the collection of statistics about students in publicly funded institutions is spread across several organisations according to the type and geographical location of the institutions

Council statistics. However, steps have been taken to co-ordinate the general collection of statistics.

Further and Higher Education

The Government's priorities for further and higher education which can be especially beneficial to women are:

(a) to improve the provision of guidance and information about opportunities;

(b) to encourage more flexible forms of provision and a more responsive attitude to client needs.

The Department's funding of the Educational Counselling and Credit Transfer Information Service (ECCTIS), PICKUP Electronic Directory and the Computer Assisted Careers Guidance System (CAGCS) will increase the effectiveness of information services about the opportunities available in further and higher education. Whilst the objective is to improve the information base to decision making skills of all students, it is hoped that the presentation of opportunities and information which is not influenced by an awareness of the sex of the client will benefit women.

More generally, the Department has sought to encourage a growing consensus within the education system over the importance of continuing education, both part time and other feasible forms of provisions such as open and distance learning. The Department is supporting experimental open learning schemes which aim to meet the needs and circumstances benefit to women mature students with domestic responsibilities. A teacher training example is given earlier in this Report.

The Government has also sought to expand the opportunities for girls to study engineering and science through its Engineering and Technology programme. The programme is expected to provide an additional 5000 engineering places in universities and polytechnics by the end of the decade. A proportion of these places could be taken up by girls which will build further on the modest upturn in the number of women engineering and science graduates.

A further example of action in higher education. Following discussions with the EOC, the Science and Engineering Research Council, which supports university research through funds provided by Government, has announced that it will sponsor a number of part time fellowships for university teachers returning from a break in service. The fellowships will be available to men and women, but are likely to be particularly relevant to women returning to work after having children.

Following an Equal Opportunities Commission investigation of a further education college in Wales the Welsh Office and the local education authorities of clear and open criteria and procedures for promotion.

Adult Education

Women account for about two thirds of enrolments in adult education in local authority adult education centres. Much of adult education provision is leisure orientated but providers which include the Workers Education Association university extra mural departments as well as local authorities are becoming increasingly interested in developing courses offering adults a "second chance". The Government welcomes this trend for example "ACCESS" courses which prepare students for higher education including initial teacher training courses. Such courses are attractive to women although they are open to both sexes.

Sports and Physical Education

In recent years HM Inspectorate has strongly advised that all pupils be encouraged to participate in skill based games thus widening the range of sports opportunities for girls. The development of mixed physical education activities under effective teacher control is currently under discussion. The EOC has urged Governors of primary and secondary schools to ensure that pupils have access to all extra curricular activities visits and trips and that it is not assumed that certain activities are suitable for boys or girls only.

C SCOTLAND

Women in Scotland are well catered for by the school education system and the evidence shows that they stay at school beyond the school leaving age and achieve Scottish Certificate of Education qualifications in greater numbers than their male counterparts. Figures for pupils leaving school in 1984-85 show that overall some 78 per cent of girls held Scottish Certificate of Education qualifications compared to 72 per cent of boys. Of greater significance is the fact that 36 per cent of girls gained at least one pass at Scottish Certificate of Education Higher Grade compared to 29 per cent of boys; and 22 per cent of girls gained 3 or more Highers (the nominal entry requirement for higher education) compared to 19 per cent of boys.

Equality is much to the fore in Scottish education. A relevant recent report by the Joint Consultative Committee on the Curriculum and Equal Opportunities Commission project on "Equal Opportunities for the Sexes" together with a teacher package "Strategy for Equality" are currently being considered by the Equal Opportunities Commission and following this it is intended to circulate the teacher package with advice on how to use it to schools and education authorities.

Studies field e.g Modern Studies and Contemporary Social Studies offer syllabus areas such as "changing society" which provide ample opportunity for teachers to bring into the course the changing role of women

The need to encourage equality of treatment between girls and boys in the different school subject areas is well recognised in Scotland In terms of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 there must be no distinction between the subjects and courses offered to boys and to girls HM Inspectorate identify any contravention of the Act and in the first instance draw it to the attention of the education authority so that the situation can be improved This means in particular that the Scottish system ensures that subjects such as Craft and Design and Home Economics are open equally to girls and to boys and does not distinguish the kind of practical work that they do

In order to encourage girls and young women to participate in scientific technical managerial and other vocational education at all levels the Government s Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) which has been enthusiastically developed in Scotland as well as in England and Wales with substantial central Government funding has as a key central feature the need to promote equal opportunities between the sexes in the curricular programmes offered in TVEI projects Linked to TVEI an equal opportunities network has been set up in Scotland bringing together representatives from all the Scottish TVEI projects to gather information on equal opportunities to monitor progress and to give appropriate advice

In the area of Community Education the Secretary of State for Scotland provides grant aid towards the administrative costs of a number of voluntary organisations which include within their aims the provision of educational activities specifically for women No community education activity has been identified which does not have equal access for women

Opportunities in the non advanced further education sector in Scotland have been enhanced by the introduction of the Government s 16+ Programme which changed the format of vocational education and training in Scotland The new system which is being taught in schools further education colleges and as part of Government training schemes is based on modules or short units of study which can normally be completed in 40 hours Students are helped to identify the components which they require for a chosen career and to assemble them into their own programmes of study The modules of which there are approximately 2 000 cover subjects ranging from technology to modern languages business studies to agriculture the sciences and the basic skills of communication numeracy and personal effectiveness The principal advantage of the modular system lies in its flexibility; because the study time required for a module is relatively short students can study on a part time or prospects. This modern curriculum framework takes full account of the impact of new technology and the essential skills required for employment. Men and women have equal access to the modular provision.

The Scottish Central Institutions and the Colleges of Education, which are both funded directly by the Secretary of State for Scotland, provide the bulk of higher education at degree equivalent level and above within the public sector in Scotland. The Central Institutions offer courses in a wide range of disciplines including science, engineering information technology and computing, management and business studies, art, paramedical and related subjects music, drama and textiles. The Colleges of Education concentrate on teacher training with a limited number of higher education courses principally in social work, community education and recreation and leisure. Colleges of further education in Scotland are administered by local authorities and offer a wide range of non-advanced and advanced courses of study. All courses are open to women. There is no discrimination by sex in schemes of student support in Scotland.

Conclusion

Government policy initiatives, and local development, appear to give some cause for optimism. Government policy for the future is to continue to work for equal opportunities across all aspects of schools provision and to focus on areas where progress is most needed. There appears to be a growing acceptance of the need to reduce the sex related contrasts that exist in many aspects of the educational experience of boys and girls and there is evidence of a move towards the adoption of a more common experience in teaching males and females in schools.

ARTICLE 11

EMPLOYMENT, SOCIAL BENEFITS AND HEALTH AND SAFETY AT WORK

The UK is fully committed to the principles of equal opportunities for men and women in the labour market and health and safety at work. A social security system operates which is designed to secure a basic standard of living for people in financial need by providing income during periods of inability to earn help for families and compensation for disablement.

A. EMPLOYMENT

On ratifying the Convention the United Kingdom made certain reservations to this Article, including the right to consider existing UK sex discrimination legislation as constituting appropriate measures for the practical realisation of the objectives of the Convention and the right to continue to apply certain existing social security and health and safety at work legislation.

The Sex Discrimination Act 1975, Equal Pay Act 1970 and Sex Discrimination Act 1986 secure the rights described by Article 11(1)(a)-(d).

The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 makes both direct and indirect discrimination on the grounds of sex or of being married generally unlawful in the employment field, including in recruitment, training promotion and dismissal. The Act also prohibits victimisation of a person because that person has attempted in good faith to assert his or her rights under the Act.

The Equal Pay Act 1970 gives a woman the right to equal pay and conditions with a man working for the same or an associated employer when they are employed at the same establishment or at different establishments where common terms and conditions are applied, and are doing:

- like work; that is work of the same or of a broadly similar nature;

- work rated as equivalent; that is, in jobs which a job evaluation study of part or all of the employer's workforce has shown to have an equal value;

- work of equal value in terms of the demands made on them under such headings as effort, skill and decision making.

As described previously, the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) has an important role in helping to enforce the legislation and in discrimination on the grounds of sex and marriage and the promotion of equality of opportunity in employment" which was approved by Parliament and issued by the Commission in 1985. This Code contains much sensible practical advice for employers on how they can ensure their staff have equal opportunities and to help them meet their obligations under the law.

In an area where social attitudes are of crucial importance, the work of the Equal Opportunities Commission is a significant factor in promoting public awareness and acceptance of the principle of equal opportunities.

As required by the legislation the employment and guidance services provided by such organisations as local authorities the Careers Services, Manpower Services Commission, Jobcentres, the Professional and Executive Register and University Appointment Boards are all available to women. All take a wide range of initiatives to encourage women to consider the full range of employment opportunities available, not simply those traditional to their sex.

Many employers in the United Kingdom have adopted and implemented equal opportunities policies as recommended in the EOC's Code of Practice and taken other positive steps to help women overcome barriers to career development. These include major companies such as BP, Austin Rover, Boots and the National Westminster Bank. A further example of the importance attached to equal opportunities by both sides of industry is the commitment in the National Agreement between the Engineering Employees Federation and the Confederation of Shipbuilding and Engineering Unions.

In addition to the EOC Code of Practice and codes introduced by employers for their own organisations other professional bodies have issued similar guidelines. For example, the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) published 'The IPM Equal Opportunities Code' in 1986.

Dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy can constitute unlawful discrimination if a man in a comparable position (for example, needing time off to have an operation) would not have been dismissed. This is in accordance with the rights described under Article 11(2)(a). (See also Annex E).

Also relevant to the rights described under Article 11(2)(a) is the fact that the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 outlaws discrimination against married people (as described above).

The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 provides redress for women who suffer dismissal or other detriment as a result of sexual harrassment at work. The Government also welcomes voluntary action by employers and unions to discourage this particularly objectionable form of sex discrimination. The EOC Code of Practice

Under the provisions of the Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978 women have the right to a lump sum payment from their employer if they are dismissed because of redundancy, provided they have worked for certain qualifying periods generally for the same employer. Entitlement ceases at age 60 compared with age 65 for men. These provisions are covered by the UK's reservations to ratification.

The Government has recently extended the UK's equal opportunities legislation with the Sex Discrimination Act 1986, which became law on 7 November 1986. Its key provisions include:

- Women will have the right to work to the same age as their male colleagues, and to claim unfair dismissal up to the same age

- Restrictions on adult women's hours and times of work in manufacturing will be lifted (see also Annex F).

- The exceptions in the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 for small firms and for small partnerships in respect of their treatment of partners are removed and the exemption for private households is narrowed, while maintaining the principle of respect for private life.

- Unlawfully discriminatory provisions in non legally binding collective agreements and rules are void.

  The need to obtain Ministerial designation before running single sex training courses is removed (see below).

There has been over the past decade in particular, a significant change in social attitudes in the UK towards women working. The principle of equal opportunities is now well accepted. The legislation has been an important factor in this, as has the work of the EOC and other organisations as described above.

More and more women are moving into non-traditional areas of work. Figures from the UK Census of Population 1981 show striking increases in the numbers of female managers and administrators (139%), engineers and scientists (282%), construction craft workers (134%) and security occupation workers (115%). However, the actual proportions of women in these occupations remain small (for example, on the basis of these figures only 2% of engineers in 1981 were women), and the Government recognises that more needs to be done.

Job segregation therefore remains a significant obstacle to full equal opportunities in practice. There is a need for continued efforts to change traditional perceptions of women's role in the labour market including the attitudes of women and girls themselves.

Another obstacle to women playing their full part in employment is the fact that they still bear the major responsibility for childcare in the UK (see Women and Employment Survey referred to below).

Some of the initiatives being taken to help overcome these difficulties are also described below.

Lack of formal and academic qualifications and lack of self confidence amongst some women and girls are also barriers to achieving full equality. Annex K gives information on Manpower Services Commission training courses and help given by TVEI, YTS and WOW courses.

Unemployment

The UK has a lower unemployment rate for women than for men. Unemployment estimates from the 1986 Labour Force Survey, based on the number of people without jobs seeking work, give a female unemployment rate of 10 per cent (as a percentage of the economically active population) in the Spring of 1985 which was lower than the male rate of 11 per cent. Female unemployment is currently falling at a higher rate than male unemployment. In the 3 months to January 1987, the seasonally adjusted percentage rate of unemployed decreased by 0.3% on the previous quarter for women, while the male rate decreased by 0 2%.

The Government could not support action aimed solely at reducing female unemployment. The need is to reduce unemployment for all Jobs for both men and women are a prerequisite for equal opportunities. Those in work should not enjoy unnecessary rights at the expense of the unemployed. A policy of deregulation will encourage employers to create jobs.

Training

The Government places a high priority on training. and makes strenuous efforts to promote equal opportunities in its training provision. This is important because people can make the best use of their abilities and play their full part in all industries and at all occupational levels only if they have the necessary training and qualifications.

The Government has also encouraged the provision of training more generally. The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 permits the running of single-sex training courses, or courses with places reserved for members of one sex, where the training is for work in which members of that sex are seriously under-represented or where the trainees are seeking to return to work after a period out of the labour market due to domestic or family responsibilities. In Great Britain, 174 training bodies were designated by Ministers under section 47 of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 to run courses of this type, before the need for such designation was ended on 7 November 1986 Sex Discrimination Act 1986. This Act removed the bureaucratic requirement to obtain designation before lawfully running such courses, and any person can now run courses meeting the criteria of section 47.

Section 48 of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 allows employers to run single sex courses for members of their staff, where this is for jobs in which members of that sex are under represented

Positive action of the type described just above is intended to help overcome the effects of past discrimination which has led to sex stereotyping and job segregation, and is in keeping with Article 4 of the Convention.

Amongst other action taken by the UK Government, it has:

- strongly supported the Women into Science and Engineering campaign, run by the EOC and the Engineering Council with the aim of encouraging girls to consider careers in science and engineering;

- been active in supporting a number of schools projects designed to encourage more girls to take an interest in industry engineering and technology;

- sponsored the Executive Shadows Scheme, which has involved a significant number of top business executives being 'shadowed' for a week by sixth form students, both boys and girls. This has demonstrated to girls that they can aspire to top management jobs;

- supported the valuable Women's Training Roadshows touring the country under the auspices of the Women's National Commission to encourage women of all ages into a wider range of jobs;

  enthusiastically backed Industry Year which had a strong equal opportunities theme. A special committee co-ordinated project of particular relevance to women.

The Government encourages employers to consider the wide range of career break leave and flexible working arrangements which can be useful both to employers and to employees in helping working parents to reconcile career and child care responsibilities, as recommended in the EOC Code of Practice.

Much action has also been taken to help women who wish to return to work after a career break to do so more easily. The Women's Engineering Society, for example, has sponsored a scheme of part-time fellowships for women returners in university science and engineering departments. Each fellow obtains retraining in research and undertakes a high level research project under the guidance of a university supervisor. Another example is the annual refresher course run by the Association of Women Solicitors for people who wish to return to the legal profession after a break of five years or more. This is a residential course and the idea is to bring people returning to the law up to date

Accompanying this Report is a Fact Sheet (Annex G) giving a variety of statistical information on women's employment in the UK. Also provided is a copy of 'Women and Employment. A Lifetime Perspective', the report of a very wide ranging research project, which contains information on many aspects of women's careers and working life including their own views and attitudes.

Scotland

In broad terms Scotland is in line with the rest of Britain on measures to encourage the employment and training of women, specifically, on Adult Training by Manpower Services Commission there will be about 45-50 Wider Opportunities for Women (WOW) courses provided in Scotland in 1986-87. These courses are aimed at women "returners" and provide a taste of a wide range of occupational skills. After completion of the course women are encouraged to apply for training in more job specific skills. It is expected that around 570 women will attend WOW courses in Scotland in 1986-87 at a cost of around £280 000.

In addition to the WOW provision, Lothian and Borders are funding Open Learning secretarial courses. While these modules are not exclusively for women, women make up the vast majority of participants. Open Learning enables women to work at their own pace, based in their home, which has proved to be very successful. Lothian and Borders Area Office of Manpower Services Commission are funding a total of 50 modules at a cost of £60 per module.

On Youth Training Schemes the Manpower Services Commission in Scotland has been trying in recent months to set up single sex and reserved place schemes. Single sex schemes are to be set up for the opposite sex from that which predominates in the industry eg engineering courses for girls and community care courses for boys.

The Industry Department for Scotland (IDS) has participated in the following programme of positive initiatives to encourage girls and young women to pursue non-traditional careers in industry (particularly in management, engineering and information technology):- Executive Shadows, Insight into Management, Mini-enterprise in Schools project and Scottish Women into the Computing Habit (SWITCH).

The information technology skills shortage committee set up under Department of Trade and Industry chairmanship drew attention to women's potential in the information technology industry at a time of growing skills shortages and declining school and university populations. It called on companies to tailor their recruitment and career structures to encourage women to make their careers in information technology. A recent study by the Institute of Manpower Studies, which was part funded by the Department of Trade and Industry, indicates that industry is heeding the call.

In partnership with the Scottish Council (Development and Industry) the Industry Department for Scotland and the Scottish Education Department have jointly funded the appointment of a schools industry engineering co-ordinator who has the task of stepping up the advice available to school pupils about the opportunities for careers in engineering and technology. This appointment will provide support to the Government's "Switch to Technology" programmes operating in universities and Scottish Central Institutions. The co-ordinator has specific responsibility to interest more schoolgirls in careers in the fields of engineering and technology.

B. HEALTH AND SAFETY AT WORK

In Great Britain the Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974 Section 2 puts a duty on employers to ensure the health and safety of their employees. As part of the consideration of the means of providing a safe workplace, the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) looks at toxic chemicals to assess the risks which these present to employees and the levels to which exposures should be restricted. Such assessments take all factors into account and the Advisory Committee on Toxic Substances (ACTS) which advises the Health and Safety Commission on appropriate exposure levels, would not discriminate between groups of workers when deciding on its recommendation. However, any adverse effects on the reproductive organs or future children of the worker are included as part of the toxicity assessment. A recent example of such a group of substances considered are the glycol ethers which have adverse reproductive effects in animals. This legislation, as all other legislation concerning the employment opportunities of women, is kept under review by the Equal Opportunities Commission.

C. THE SOCIAL WELFARE SYSTEM

The British social welfare system comprises the National Health Service, (see Article 12) the personal social services and social security. Local authority personal social services and voluntary organisations provide advice and help to elderly people, disabled people and children in need of care

Central government is responsible directly for the social security system. It has an indirect responsibility for the personal social services administered by local government authorities. Joint finance and planning between health and local authorities aims to prevent overlapping of services and to encourage the development of community services.

Spending on social welfare in 1986/87 in the UK was: health £18,000 million (12.4 per cent of general government expenditure); personal social services £3,400 million (2.3 per cent); and social security £46,000 million (31.1 per cent). Spending on social security is rising because of increased numbers of beneficiaries. Spending on the personal social services is determined by local authorities.

D. SOCIAL SECURITY

National Insurance, industrial injuries benefits, child benefits, family income supplement, supplementary benefit and war pensions constitute a comprehensive system of social security. Since the inception of the present insurance based system in 1948 social security has provided for equality between single men and women and has included areas of protection for married women. Over recent years provision has been reviewed to take account of the changing social and economic position of women. Almost complete equality of access to all forms of benefit now exists. With the exception of certain categories of benefit, equality of access to social security benefits is required of the UK under the terms of the European Community Directive 79/7.

The Department of Health and Social Security administers the services in Great Britain; in Northern Ireland they are administered by the Department of Health and Social Services. Pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants are the responsibility of the Department of Health and Social Security throughout the United Kingdom. Advice on social security is given to the Government by the Social Security Advisory Committee.

Contributions

Entitlement to National Insurance benefits such as retirement pension sickness and invalidity benefit, unemployment benefit. widow's benefit and maternity allowance is dependent upon the payment of contributions. Industrial injuries benefits are non-contributory,* but are also payable from the National Insurance Fund. There are four classes of contributions. Class 1 contributions, which are related to earnings, are paid by employees and employers. The contribution is lower if the employer operates a 'contracted-out' occupational pension scheme (see below). Self-employed people pay a flat rate Class 2 contribution and a Class 4 contribution which is assessed as a percentage of profits or gains within certain limits; they are not eligible for unemployment and industrial injuries benefits. Voluntary Class 3 contributions are made by people wanting to safeguard rights to some benefits.

Employees who continue working after pensionable age (60 for women and 65 for men) do not pay contributions but the employer continues to be liable. People earning less than the lower earnings limit are not liable for contributions; neither are their employers. Self-employed people with earnings below a set annual amount may apply for exemption and those over pensionable age are excused payment of contributions.

Benefits

Conditions of entitlement for the receipt of all social security benefits are prescribed in legislation. Three categories of benefit exist:

- Contributory benefits. Entitlement to the principal benefits for retirement, unemployment sickness and invalidity is governed by the payment of contributions into the national insurance scheme over a period prescribed for each benefit. Contributions are now payable on an equal basis by all men and women in employment whose earnings exceed a minimum level. The 1975 Social Security Pensions Act abolished the optional reduced rate contribution payable by married women which confirmed no entitlement to the principal contributory benefits, except for those with residual rights under earlier legislation.

- Non contributory benefits. Entitlement is governed by the satisfaction of criteria such as degree of loss of faculty and is not related to gender or marital status.

- Income related benefits. Entitlement is principally determined by the resources of the household unit. For this purpose the incomes of both partners of a married or unmarried couple are aggregated.

Retirement Pension

A state retirement pension is payable on retirement to women at the age of 60 and to men at the age of 65. The state pension scheme consists of the basic pension plus an additional (earnings-related) pension. Pensioners are permitted to earn up to £75 a week before the amount of their pension is reduced; those still at work who have put off of cancelled their retirement during the five years after minimum pension may earn extra pension. A non-contributory retirement pension is payable to people over the age of 80 who meet certain residence conditions and who have not qualified for a contributory pension. People whose pensions do not give them sufficient resources to live on may be entitled to supplementary pension which is calculated on the same basis as supplementary benefit.

Rights to basic pension are safeguarded for mothers who are away from work looking after children or for people giving up work to care for severely disabled relatives. Women contributors receive the same pension as men with the same earnings.

Employers are free to 'contract out' their employees from the state scheme for additional pension and provide their own occupational pension in its place, provided that the latter is at least as good as the state additional pension. The State remains responsible for the basic pension.

Mothers and Children

A non-contributory maternity payment of £80 from the new Social Fund is available to mothers who satisfy certain simple income and resources criteria: this replaces the universal non-contributory maternity grant of £25 which was abolished on 6 April 1987. Maternity allowance is a weekly benefit payable for up to 18 weeks. the actual period of payment being subject to a degree of flexibility. This change is designed to benefit more those who most need help by allocating resources more appropriately.

Under provisions in the Social Security Act 1986 women who have worked for the first six months of pregnancy for an employer and who satisfy simple earnings criteria will receive statutory maternity pay from their employers for up to 18 weeks. No condition of return to work may be imposed by the employer. The provisions of the Act came into operation on 6 April 1987. Self employed women and employed women who do not qualify for statutory maternity pay may receive a contributory maternity allowance.

Non-contributory child benefit is the main social security benefit for children. Tax free and normally paid to the mother, it is payable for children up to the age of 16 and for those up to the age of 19 if they continue in full-time non-advanced education. A sum in addition to child benefit, called one-parent benefit, is payable to certain people, whether parents or not, bringing up one or more children on their own. A weekly contributory child's special allowance was previously payable to a mother on the death of a former husband if the marriage was dissolved or annulled and he was contributing to the support of the children: the benefit was abolished from 6 April 1987 except in respect of existing beneficiaries. A non contributory guardian's allowance for an orphaned child is payable to a person who is entitled to child benefit for that child. In certain circumstances it can be paid on the death of only one parent.

Widows

A widow's allowance may be payable for the first 26 weeks of widowhood, and an additional sum is often payable for each child. After this a widowed mother with a young family receives a widowed mother's allowance with an addition for each child. Widow's pension is payable to a widow who is 40 years or over when her husband dies or when her entitlement to widowed mother's allowance ends. Payment continues until the widow remarries or begins drawing retirement pension. Widows also benefit under the industrial injuries scheme.

A man whose wife dies when both are over pension age inherits his wife's pension rights just as a widow inherits her husband's rights.

Sick and Disabled People

There is a large variety of benefits for people unable to work because of sickness or disablement. Statutory sick pay is payable by an employer for the first eight weeks of an employee's illness in any tax year; contributory sickness benefit is payable by the State for up to 28 weeks, with additions for a wife or other adult dependants. Employees not covered for statutory sick pay can claim sickness benefit instead, as can those people who do not work for an employer.

An invalidity pension with additions for a wife and children is payable when sickness benefit ends if the beneficiary is still incapable of work. An invalidity allowance is paid with the pension to those people who become sick more than five years before minimum retirement age.

Various benefits are payable for disablement caused by an accident at work or a prescribed disease. Disablement benefit is usually paid after a qualifying period of 15 weeks if, as a result of an industrial accident or a prescribed disease, there is a loss of physical or mental faculty. (During the qualifying period sick pay or sickness benefit is payable.) The amount depends on the extent of the disablement as assessed by a medical board but for disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is normally paid. In certain circumstances disablement benefits may be supplemented by unemployability supplement; constant attendance allowance; an additional allowance payable in certain cases of exceptionally severe disablement; a special hardship allowance for a person who is unfit to return to his or her regular job or to do work of an equivalent standard; and hospital treatment allowance which raises the disablement pension or gratuity to the 100 per cent assessment rate during hospital treatment for the industrial injury. Increases of disablement benefit for dependants may be payable with unemployability supplement.

A non-contributory, tax-free attendance allowance may be payable to severely disabled people at either a higher or a lower rate depending upon the amount of care and attention they require A severe disablement allowance is payable to people of working age who are unable to work and do not qualify for the National Insurance invalidity pension; it is also payable to disabled housewives.

A weekly invalid care allowance may be payable to certain categories of people (aged between 16 and pension age) who cannot go to work because they are caring for a severely disabled person receiving an attendance allowance.

Physically disabled people unable or virtually unable to walk may be entitled to a tax-free mobility allowance to help to pay their transport costs. People aged between 5 and 66 may claim and payment can continue up to the age of 75.

An independent organisation called Motability assists disabled drivers and passengers wanting to use their mobility allowance to obtain a vehicle.

Unemployment Benefit

Unemployment benefit is payable for up to a year in any one spell of unemployment. Periods covered by unemployment or sickness benefit, maternity allowance or some training allowances, which are eight weeks or less apart, are linked to form one period of interruption of employment. Generally anyone claiming unemployment benefit has to be available for employment, but unemployed people wishing to do voluntary work in the community can do so in certain circumstances without loss of entitlement to benefit.

Funeral Expenses

A payment for essential funeral expenses can be made from the new Social Fund for those who satisfy certain income and resources criteria. The funeral payment replaces the universally paid death grant, which was abolished on 6 April 1987.
These provisions are covered by the UK's reservations to ratification.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE ELIMINATION OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN IN SOCIAL SECURITY

Retirement Benefits

The 1975 Social Security Pensions Act provided for the protection from April 1978 of basic retirement pension entitlement of those men and women prevented from entering employment and contributing to the national insurance scheme because of responsibilities in the home.

The 1985 Social Security Act abolished the additional discriminatory contribution condition for retirement pension previously applied to married women. Before 6 April 1979 married women were required to have paid full contributions for half of the years of their marriage if they were to have entitlement to pension on their own contributions. No such condition applied to married men. This "half test" was abolished in 1979 for women reaching pension age after that time, but until recently it continued to apply for women who had reached pension age before 1979. The 1985 Act abolished these residual effects from December 1984, enabling about 30,000 more women to receive pensions in their own right.

European Community directive EC86/378 was adopted by the EC Council of Ministers in June 1986. It will prohibit discrimination between men and women in the conditions of membership of occupational pension schemes, in the level of contributions and, subject to certain exceptions, in the level and type of benefits payable Equality in conditions of membership of schemes already exists in the UK.

Non Contributory Benefits

The 1986 Social Security Act prohibited the exclusion of married women from receipt of allowances payable to those caring for elderly sick or disabled persons in the home. Such allowances are now extended to married women on the same basis as single men and women.

The 1984 Social Security Act provided for the introduction of a non contributory benefit for the severely disabled payable on an equal basis to men and women. Entitlement of married women to non contributory benefit payable in respect of severe disablement was previously linked with their ability to perform certain household tasks.

Proposed Future Developments in the 1986 Social Security Act

The 1986 Social Security Act provides that under the reformed system of income related benefits operative from 1988 men and women living as couples will enjoy unrestricted equal rights to act as the claimant for benefit awarded to the couple. At present, there is a test of recent association with work for the main means-tested support benefit.

Future protection of the rights to earnings-related pensions of men and women undertaking domestic responsibilities in the home is ensured.

Under the reformed scheme of support for low-income families benefit will be payable directly to recipients, usually women.

Remaining Areas of Discrimination

Differences in entitlement to contributory benefits arising from the previous economic and social position of women and differences in employment patterns between men and women still exist. In the main they are favourable to women and an immediate eradication of all forms of discrimination would disadvantage some women.

Differences in entitlement remain in:

- State pension age. The minimum age for the receipt of a State contributory retirement pension is 60 for women and 65 for men.

- Married women's retirement pension. Married women without personal entitlement to a contributory retirement pension are eligible to receive a reduced-rate pension by virtue of national insurance contributions made by their husbands. No parallel right exists for men. As a consequence of the optional reduced-rate contribution payable by married women before 1978 which brought no pension rights a high proportion of women have no personal entitlement to retirement pension. Of the 6.3 million women in receipt of State retirement pensions at September 1986 2.1 million women in Great Britain received some pension on their own contributions. A further 300,000 women had some reduced pension entitlement combined with pension received by virtue of their husbands contributions. A further 1.5 million women were in receipt solely of pension derived from their husband's entitlement. Changing employment patterns among women combined with measures to protect pension rights of those with domestic responsibilities and the abolition of the reduced rate married women's national insurance contribution will in future lead to a higher proportion of women with entitlement based on personal contributions.

- Survivors' benefits. Women may in prescribed circumstances receive widows' benefits. Entitlement is based on the contributions paid by their deceased husbands. Widowers' benefits are payable only in very limited circumstances. At September 1986 over 40,000 women under minimum retirement age were in receipt of widows' benefits. A further 2 million widows over minimum retirement age received retirement pensions with entitlement derived from their husbands' contributions. 320 men were in receipt of retirement pensions derived wholly or partly from the deceased wife's contributions.

E. PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICES

Responsibility for personal social services rests with the social services authorities (local authority social services departments in England and Wales, social work departments in Scotland and health and social services boards in Northern Ireland). Many of their services are directed towards the same groups of people as those needing health services, for example, elderly or disabled people. Other groups helped include young families with social problems, children deprived of a normal home life, the mentally ill or handicapped and young offenders. Close co-operation is maintained between local authority social services departments and health authorities. In Scotland local authorities also undertake duties similar to those of the separate probation and prison after care service in England and Wales.

Much of the care given to the elderly and disabled is provided in the community itself, by their families, self help groups and through voluntary agencies. The statutory sector offers the special skilled care needed in particular services. The Government recognises the importance of the contribution made by the voluntary organisations in a wide range of activities that complement the provisions of statutory services.

The Elderly

Services for elderly people are provided by statutory and voluntary bodies to help them remain in their homes whenever possible. These may include the advice and help of social workers, domestic help, delivery of cooked meals, sitters-in, night attendants and laundry services as well as day centres, clubs and recreational workshops. (Such services are also available to the disabled and the mentally and physically handicapped see below). In many areas 'good neighbour' and friendly visiting services are arranged by the local authority or a voluntary organisation Social services authorities also provide residential accommodation for the elderly and infirm and have powers to register homes run by voluntary organisations or privately.

Local authorities, as part of their responsibility for public housing build flats specially designed for elderly people; some of these blocks have resident wardens. Housing associations also build this type of accommodation.

In Wales the Welsh Office are supporting financially innovative projects which will test ways of assisting the elderly in their homes This support has been introduced following the publication of a consultation document called "Good Old Age".

Disabled People

Social services authorities provide a range of personal social services for disabled people, including residential homes. They are also required to establish the number of disabled people in their area and to publicise services. A wide range of services may be available including advice on personal and social problems arising from disability, assistance in overcoming the effects of disability, adaptations to people's homes (such as ramps for wheelchaires, and ground-floor toilets) and various aids to daily living. In certain circumstances assistance may be given with the installation of a telephone or a television set, and with travel, educational, leisure and other activities. Some authorities make arrangements for the teaching of handicrafts and other occupations. Voluntary organisations also provide many of these services to complement and support those provided by the statutory bodies.

Help available from other sources includes social security benefits, medical treatment, special education, employment and training services, and specially designed housing. Adequate provision of means of access for disabled people is encouraged at an early stage in the design, development, or construction of public buildings.

The Mentally Ill and the Mentally Handicapped

Social services authorities must arrange for the provision of services for both mentally ill and mentally handicapped people in the community. These include training centres for the mentally handicapped and day centres for the mentally ill, as well as social centres and a variety of residential care for mentally ill and mentally handicapped people of all ages. Social workers help patients and their families to deal with social problems arising from mental illness or handicaps and in certain circumstances can make an application for a mentally disordered person's compulsory admission to and detention in hospital.

Two recent priorities have been to transfer mentally handicapped children from long-stay hospitals to community care, and, through a number of special projects, to improve care for elderly mentally ill people.

An important role in provision of services is played by the many voluntary organisations concerned with mental health and handicap.

In Wales the Welsh Office initiated the Mental Handicap Strategy whereby community based services are being developed to assist families to cope with the problems arising from looking after mentally handicapped children who are dependent on their families through from childhood to adulthood. Women are the majority of carers and under the Mental Handicap Strategy our intention is to enable mentally handicapped people to live more independent lives through attending schools and colleges and obtaining work or work related experience. This will enable parents to have time to take up other activities.

Help to Families

Social services authorities, through their own social workers, give practical help and advice to families facing special problems. This help includes services for children at risk of injury or neglect who require accommodation. and support for family carers who look after elderly and other family members in order to give them a respite. They also help lone parents, including unmarried mothers, divorced or separated women and others with dependent children. There are many refuges run by Local Authorities or voluntary organisations for women, often with young children, whose home conditions have become intolerable. The refuges provide short-term accommodation and support while attempts are made to alleviate the women's problems. Many authorities also contribute to the cost of social work with families carried out by voluntary organisations.

An initiative was launched by the Government in 1983 to increase voluntary sector provision in England for disadvantaged families with children under five. In the same year the Family Policy Studies Centre was established with official funding to review the impact of public policies on the family and to bring together research findings.

Child Care

Day care facilities for children under five are provided by local authorities and voluntary agencies and privately. There is no statutory right to day care services for the under fives but local authorities have a discretionary power (under the National Health Service Act 1977) to provide day care and to make charges if appropriate. Longstanding Government policy is that public provision of day care (ie services provided or funded by local authorities) should be concentrated on those whose need for it is greatest such as those families with particular health or social needs who will benefit most from a local authority day care place. It is for individual local authorities to assess the level and type of provision necessary to meet priority cases in their own areas and to involve social services, education and the voluntary sector in the co-ordination of services. In allocating places in day nurseries and other facilities they themselves provide. local authorities give priority to children with special social or health needs for day care. They also register, and provide support and advice services for childminders, private day nurseries and playgroups operating in their areas

ARTICLE 12

A. PROVISION OF HEALTH SERVICES ON AN EQUAL BASIS

Health care in the United Kingdom is comprehensive and available to all regardless of age, sex or nationality. It is provided through the National Health Service (NHS) and delivered without charge to UK residents (visitors from overseas are required to pay the full cost of treatment). Drugs and medicines for patients not resident in hospitals are dispensed on payment of a prescription fee unless they are in an exempted category eg expectant mothers (almost 70% of prescriptions issued are exempt from payment). The Government is concerned that NHS provision should be responsive to the needs of the consumer and discussions are being held with health service managers and professionals on ways of achieving this.

B. SPECIFIC SERVICES FOR WOMEN

In addition to the general range of health services appropriate to both sexes certain services are necessary to meet the needs of women alone. Cancer is the second most important cause of death for women in the UK and breast cancer is the most prevalent form of cancer among women. The Government has recently decided following the advice of an expert working party to establish a national breast cancer screening service. This will be available to the age group for which the effectiveness of mammographic screening has been demonstrated and which is most at risk from breast cancer (50 64). Cervical cancer kills considerably fewer women than breast cancer. However a simple test can detect it at the pre-cancerous stage when it can be treated successfully. Techniques for testing for the early warning signs of cervical cancer have been available and in use in the NHS for many years. The Government has asked health authorities in England to treat as a priority the installation of computerised systems which will ensure that every female member of the population aged 20 and above is called and recalled for cervical smear tests at regular intervals. In Scotland consideration is being given to a Report on the operation of the cervical screening service and an announcement of the Government's views will be made.

The Health Education Advisory Committee for Wales (now the Welsh Health Promotion Authority) set up a Working Group to consider the health education aspects of cancer screening. The first task of the group was to examine aspects of the cervical cancer screening programme with particular emphasis on how to encourage those women most at risk to come forward for screening. Copies of the "Report on Health Education Relating to Cervical Screening in Wales" have been sent to interested bodies.

One of the Ministers in the Department of Health has since September 1986 taken a special responsibility in England for women's health.

Health Education and Prevention

The main Government agency in England for the promotion of health education was, until 31 March 1987, the Health Education Council (HEC). It promoted programmes designed to motivate women towards good health practices - much of its general health education work was family based. The Health Education Authority, which replaced the HEC on 1 April 1987, will carry forward the Council's activities. The Scottish Health Education Group (SHEG) provides a similar service in Scotland.

Women and Smoking

The Government recognises that smoking is a major cause of preventible illness and death in the UK. Mortality from lung cancer among women has been rising over recent years and so specific measures aimed at women smokers have been taken. In 1985 £500 000 was made available to the Health Education Council for a television campaign to discourage smoking among women. In 1986 the HEC and SHEG jointly produced a new booklet on women and smoking. The latest Voluntary Agreement on tobacco advertising and promotion prohibits advertising in magazines where a third or more of the readers are young women. One of six new health warnings, which must by law be printed on cigarette packets, hand rolling tobacco and related advertising, draws attention to the damage smoking during pregnancy can do to an unborn baby.

Female Circumcision

There is no evidence that it has been widely practised in the United Kingdom and female circumcision may have been against British law. However, because the law was uncertain, Marion Rose MP introduced a Private Member's Bill into Parliament in the 1984-85 session to put it beyond doubt that the practice is illegal in the United Kingdom. The Bill was supported by the Government and from all parts of Parliament, and received the Royal Assent on 16 July 1985. The Prohibition of Female Circumcision Act 1985 makes it an offence to carry the procedures known as female circumcision and specifies what female circumcision entails. It also makes it an offence for anyone to aid, abet, counsel or procure the carrying out of these procedures by any other person on her own body. The Act provides for exceptions for surgical opertions performed by registered medical practitioners which are necessary for the mental or physical health of a person and for operations carried out in connection with labour or childbirth by a midwife.

The Role of the Voluntary Sector

There is considerable activity on health issues within the voluntary sector and there are many organisations that deal primarily or entirely with women's health issues. The Government recognises the importance of the contribution made by the voluntary sector in this field. The UK Health Departments provide funding for a number of voluntary organisations concerned with maternity and childbirth such as the Maternity Alliance and for others concerned with women's health such as the Women's National Cancer Control Campaign, the Mastectomy Association and Women's Health Concern.

Family Planning Services

Family planning advice and services are available nationally, free of charge. These services are provided by general medical practitioners and by health authorities through family planning clinics. Several voluntary sector agencies are also involved in provision of family planning services. An estimated 75% of women in the fertile age range use contraception. Approximately 15% of these attend health authority family planning clinics and over 20% consult general practitioners. The remaining users include 22% who are or whose partners are sterilised and those who use non-medical methods which may be purchased.

Abortion

The Abortion Act 1967 provides for the legal termination of a pregnancy by a registered medical practitioner if two registered medical practitioners are of the opinion formed in good faith, that a) the continuance of the pregnancy would involve risk to the life of the pregnant women, or of injury to the physical or mental health of the pregnant woman or any existing children of her family greater than if the pregnancy were terminated; or b) there is a substantial risk if the child were born it would suffer from such physical or mental abnormalities as to be seriously handicapped. In assessing these risks doctors may take into account social factors at present and in the forseeable future. Tables showing numbers of abortions carried out in England and Wales and in Scotland in recent years are at the end of this Section.

Statistics on the incidence of illegal abortion are not available but the incidence is believed to be negligible.

C. MATERNITY SERVICES

A comprehensive range of maternity services is available within the NHS. These extend from ante-natal care through to care and support for mothers and new babies within the community. Services are available free of charge and are organised on a local basis.

Advice to Mothers

The Government attaches great importance to early and regular ante natal care and advice. This is available to all pregnant women to help them to protect themselves and the unborn child and to prepare the way for delivery of a healthy baby. The HEC has produced a number of publications giving advice to women about pregnancy, childbirth and infant care such as a Pregnancy Book which was first published in 1986 and is issued to all first time expectant mothers. In Scotland in 1980, the Scottish Health

Education Group prepared "The Book of the Child" dealing with pregnancy and the first 4 years of a child's life. The voluntary sector makes an important contribution in this field. The National Childbirth Trust, for example, offers ante-natal classes, breastfeeding counselling and help and encouragement after the baby is born.

Breastfeeding

Government policy is to promote and protect breastfeeding. This is being implemented through advice to health authorities and through the voluntary code of practice for the marketing of infant formulae which was negotiated with industry in 1983.

Advice to Health Authorities

The Maternity Services Advisory Committee (MSAC) was established in December 1981 for a three year term to advise the government on all aspects of maternity and neo natal care. The Committee produced three reports giving advice on good practice. These have been widely distributed to health authorities Health service management is becoming increasingly aware of the importance of providing the sort of care that women want and much is being done to improve maternity care through the local maternity services liaison committees

Screening Tests

A wide range of tests and procedures to detect abnormalities in either the mother's health during pregnancy or in the foetus are available within the United Kingdom. The decision to offer any test to a woman during pregnancy, such as an ultrasound scan, is a matter for the clinical judgement of the doctor concerned. Women have the right to decline such tests. There is no compulsion for a mother to undergo any test if she does not wish to do so. The reason for any procedure and test is fully explained so that she understands what is being offered, and why, and can thus make an informed decision

Perinatal Mortality

There has been a striking reduction in perinatal mortality over the last few years: it has dropped in England and in Scotland by a third from 15.4 per 1000 births in 1978 to a rate of 9.8 in 1985 The fall in rates has been seen in all social classes but differences remain. The MSAC reports have emphasised the need for health authorities to provide sufficent flexibility in their ante natal services to meet the different needs of women considered to be at risk.

Neonatal Intensive Care

There have in recent years been rapid technological developments in neonatal intensive care. It is now possible to keep alive very small babies who would previously have died. The proportion of very low birth-weight babies born alive has increased by 33% over the last five years. These very small babies make up about 1% of all births and about 10% of babies weighing 2,500 grams or less.

Welfare Foods Provision

Expectant mothers and children up to age 5 in low income and unemployed families receive, free of charge, 7 pints of liquid milk per week and a supply of vitamin drops (or vitamin pills for expectant mothers). Where the child is under 12 months the mother may receive either 7 pints of liquid milk per week or 900 grams of dried baby milk (as well as a supply of vitamin drops).

D. LEGISLATION RELATING TO THE PROVISION OF HEALTH SERVICES

The major piece of legislation which lays a duty on the Secretary of State for Health and Social Services to ensure provision of health services is:

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICES ACT 1977, AS AMENDED BY THE HEALTH SERVICE ACT 1980 (IN SCOTLAND THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICES (SCOTLAND) ACT 1978)

There is a wide range of other legislation concerning health issues. Some of the legislation relevant to the issues covered in the preceding pages is listed below.

INFANT LIFE (PRESERVATION) ACT 1929

Concerned with the viability of the foetus, and limits abortion to the first 28 weeks of pregnancy unless it is necessary to save the life of the mother

BIRTHS AND DEATHS REGISTRATION ACT 1953 AND SUPPORTING REGULATION (IN SCOTLAND - REGISTRATION OF BIRTHS, DEATHS AND MARRIAGES (SCOTLAND) ACT 1965)

Concerned with the arrangements for the registration of births, still births, deaths and the disposal of bodies.

NURSES, MIDWIVES AND HEALTH VISITORS ACT 1979 AND SUPPORTING REGULATION

Established a Central Council to make provisions for education training and discipline of nurses, midwives and health visitors.

CONGENITAL DISABILITIES (CIVIL LIABILITY) ACT 1976

Concerned with civil liability to children born disabled as a consequence of some person's fault.

ABORTION ACT 1967

Allows for abortions to be carried out in certain circumstances with time limit determined by reference to the Infant Life (Preservation) Act.

THE PROHIBITION OF FEMALE CIRCUMCISION ACT 1985

THE EMERGENCY LAWS (RE-ENACTMENTS AND REPEALS) ACT 1964

Contains the Orders for the provision of welfare foods.

HEALTH SERVICES AND PUBLIC HEALTH ACT 1968

Contains provisions to enable central government to make funding grants to voluntary organisations.

Scotland

There is a well developed family practitioner and community services throughout the country, including remote rural areas. Those are accessible to women and men alike and provide advice and treatment on maternal and child care problems and family planning. Advice and treatment on family planning are provided free of charge by general medical practitioners or by clinics operated by Health Authorities.

A comprehensive system of ante natal and post-natal advice and treatment is available from general medical practitioners, community nurses, health visitors and the hospital service. In particular advice is provided on the nutrition of both mothers and babies. Maternal mortality has reached a low level, but all such deaths are the subject of a detailed investigation by Health Departments and the lessons learned are published.

It is recognised that schools can make a major contribution to the personal health and well being of young people as part of a broadly based health education programme. The Consultative Committee on the Curriculum is considering in conjunction with the Scottish Health Education Group what advice and help should be given to schools and authorities on health education for children in the 10 14 age group; the Scottish Examination Board are developing a Standard Grade course in Health Studies; and, in the context of its campaign against drug misuse the Department have promoted and funded the development of teacher training and the preparation of relevant teaching materials to help schools handle drug education effectively. The need for sex education as part of the necessary preparation for adulthood is also recognised and this issue is being considered in the context of the study of health education for 10 14 year olds. The need to advise boys as well as girls on the skills required in bringing up families is recognised as an essential feature of health and sex education

ABORTIONS (ENGLAND AND WALES)

		RESIDENTS					NON RESIDENTS
YEAR	TOTAL	NUMBER	NHS	NON NHS		RATES PER 1000 WOMEN 15 - 44	NUMBER -
				TOTAL	AGENCY		
1982	163,045	128,553	62,409	66,144	4,425	12.17	34,492
1983	162,161	127,375	62,609	64,766	4,614	11.94	34,786
1984	169,993	136,388	64,823	71,565	4,912	12.67	33,605
1985	171,873	141,101	65,176	75,925	5,929	12.97	30,772

ABORTIONS AMONG UNDER 16s

YEAR	NUMBER	RATES PER 1000 WOMEN: 14 - 15
1982	3852	4.98
1983	4087	5.38
1984	4158	5.58
1985	4002	5.41

ABORTIONS (SCOTLAND)

		RESIDENTS		
YEAR	TOTAL	NHS	NON NHS	RATES PER 1000 WOMEN 15 - 44
1982	8425	8187	238	7.6
1983	8459	8257	202	7.6
1984	9155	8934	221	8.2
1985	9110	8899	211	8.1

ARTICLE 13

A. TAXATION

The United Kingdom has made a reservation against Article 13. This allows the income tax and capital gains tax system to continue in its present form even though in some respects it does not afford women equal treatment.

Nevertheless the Government recognises that there are strong arguments for reform of our system of personal taxation in a way which would give women equal treatment. In order to stimulate and focus the public debate on this issue in 1986 the Government published a Green Paper "The Reform of Personal Taxation". The Green Paper described a possible system of independent taxation of husband and wife with transferable allowances.

Under this form of independent taxation the rule which adds the income and capital gains of a married woman to those of her husband and taxes them as his would be abolished. Husbands and wives would be entitled to personal tax allowances to equal value to set against their income (whether from earnings or investments) and each would be responsible for handling their own tax affairs. This would remedy those features of the present system which have been most strongly criticised by women's organisations.

The publication of the Green Paper was followed by a period of public consultation. A number of non-governmental organisations submitted comments and some shared the results of relevant research or surveys of membership opinion. However the response as a whole was disappointingly thin and the Government feels that there is insufficient support for the proposed changes to take a decision at this stage to go ahead with so far-reaching a reform.

The Government has reaffirmed the importance of giving women a fair deal in tax matters and removing the tax penalties on marriage. It will be considering the matter further and exploring whether there is any satisfactory half-way house to the approach in the Green Paper.

B. THE RIGHT TO FAMILY BENEFITS

Men and women now enjoy equal right of access to family benefits in the UK. A universal non contributory benefit is payable to all families with children. In addition extra benefit is payable to lone parents, 90% of whom are women. Child benefit is paid to the mother unless she agrees that it should be paid to the father.

From November 1983 women have possessed equal rights to act as a claimant for income supplements payable in respect of children available to low-income families in work.

C. FINANCIAL RIGHTS

There are no bars on women's rights to bank loans, mortgages or other forms of credit. As stated in Article 15 below, a women can enter into a contract freely.

D. THE RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE IN RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES, SPORTS AND ALL ASPECTS OF CULTURAL LIFE

Sport

As recreation, sports and cultural activities are participated in on a voluntary basis, women are free to take part in them as they wish. However the Sports Council, the Government's agency charged with the promotion of sport and recreation, is aware of lower participation rates by women. In its strategy, "Sport in the Community: The Next Ten Year's" it identifies that, whilst participation has increased amongst younger middle aged women, some groups have particular problems, notably housewives with young children. In the decade 1982-1992, the targets are to increase participation of women in indoor sport by 70% and in outdoor activities by 35%. Comparable figures for men are 15% and 15%. Two age groups have also been targetted; 13-24 and 45-59.

The two Sports Council campaigns run since 1982 ("50+ All to Play For" and "Ever Thought of Sport") have both concentrated on participation by women. Exact figures are not available but in the 50+ campaign more women were attracted than men with the ratio estimated at 70:30. However, there is some evidence that a number of mixed-sex sporting organisations (notably golf, tennis and sailing clubs) which tend to have been long established and traditionally male dominated, discriminate against women. This discrimination normally takes the form of two categories of membership: one for men ("full" membership) at a higher subscription rate, bringing eligibility for election to all club-wide activities and full voting rights; the other ("associate" membership), for women, at a lower subscription rate, bring eligibility for election to a women's committee only, no club-wide voting rights and restricted privileges. These restricted privileges may lead, for example, to prohibition on the use of sports facilities on evenings and at weekends.

Sport and recreational activities, as other activities, are covered by the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975. However, under Section 44 of the Act single-sex sporting competitions where the physical strength, stamina or physique of the average woman puts her at a disadvantage to the average man are the subject of an exception and Section 28 allows exception for further education courses in physical training.

At present, private clubs fall outside the scope of the Act. The Equal Opportunities Commission, which has a duty to keep the legislation under review, is at present considering whether to make a recommendation to the Home Secretary that private clubs with both sexes in membership should be brought within the scope of the Act.

A policy statement on Women and Sport was accepted by the Sports Council in November 1984 and programmes to implement this are developing (paper attached). These include the production of videos and a seminar on leadership by women in outdoor activities.

The Sports Council decided against a specific women and sport campaign (unlike Wales and Scotland which ran them), believing that concern for increasing female participation must be an integral, not a separate part of all Sports Council work and campaigns. However, many schemes have been and are being initiated to attract women into physical activity. Examples are swimming for Asian women, a women's activities promoter in Norwich, a sports motivator working with the National Federation of Women's Institutes, Action Sport schemes (report 'Working with Women and Girls' Glyptis et al, Loughborough University) and a publication 'Sport and Recreation for Women and Girls' by the Greater London and South East region.

In January 1987 the Sports Council accepted a paper on Sex Discrimination and grant-aided organisations and recommendations will now be implemented as identified in the paper. (Annex H).

ARTICLE 14

Women in Rural Areas

People living in the rural areas of England particularly the remoter parts face disadvantages, compared to their urban counterparts There are problems of low pay, limited range of employment opportunities, lack of low cost housing for rent or purchase, especially for local people, age imbalance, and difficulties of access to services and facilities. Many of those problems place women in particular at a disadvantage.

The limited range of work opportunities in rural areas affects both men and women, but the latter are particularly disadvantaged by the lack of opportunities in sectors traditionally attractive to women eg offices, service industries and part-time employment. Opportunities which do exist may often be low skilled eg packaging, or seasonal. In many rural areas average wage levels for both men and women are lower, but living costs can be higher than in urban areas. The woman's economic contribution to the family economy can be essential. Industries in rural areas are generally small in nature and are often family run. Women may provide support and contribute to the business in an informal, unpaid capacity eg secretarial and bookkeeping work. Farming in particular is often a family run business, although not all members are directly employed. Therefore, figures of female employment in agriculture - and other businesses - are artificially low. On the other hand women may not always register as unemployed, particularly in rural areas where access to job centres and benefits offices are difficult. Both these factors not being registered as employed or unemployed - will affect entitlement to benefits.

One of the key problems in rural areas is access to services and facilities. Villages cannot support a wide range of services and addition policies to centralise services eg health centres, this can result in rural people having to travel long distances to reach services. Public transport has been declining in rural areas and car ownership is higher than the national average. However, a number of groups, including women, have no access to a car. In many cases the family car is used for journeys to work and is, therefore, not available to the rest of the household. Facilities for pre-school children eg crêches, playgroups are also limited. Access to advice and information is also a problem.

The Development Commission for Rural England is a Government agency with a remit to advise Government on all matters relating to the economic and social development of rural areas of England. It may carry out, or assist others in carrying out, measures likely to further such development.

The Commission operates programmes designed to strengthen the economy of rural areas by increasing the number and variety of employment opportunities; and to ensure that the availability and quality of services are maintained and, where possible, improved.

It does this through providing premises and advice, training and some financial support for small businesses; and support for rural services and community developments.

None of the Commission's programmes is designed specifically for women, but women are eligible for assistance under them, eg they can be tenants of small workshops, receive business and technical advice, training or loans from the Council for Small Industries in Rural Areas, the Commission's main agency, or will benefit indirectly from them.

Much of the support given for rural services and community development will be of direct benefit. In particular, the Commission gives an annual grant to the National Federation of Women's Institutes which promotes and provides a wide range of assistance for its members eg local markets adult education colleges and programmes in the villages. The Commission also supports the work of county Rural Community Councils who act as a focus for community action in the countryside which involves women or seeks to meet women's needs. The Commission operates two specific schemes to help improve access to services and facilities: first, the Rural Transport Development Fund which is designed to encourage new ways of meeting transport needs throughout rural England; and second a scheme in the Commission's priority areas to encourage the wider use of village halls to accommodate facilities, such as pre-school playgroups, job centre information, clinics and health facilities and adult education classes.

The Commission also grant aids to some rural service projects directly to help show the way and bring forward schemes which might not otherwise be undertaken. It is promoting with the National Association of Citizens Advice Bureaux the provision of improved information and advice services in rural areas.

All of these projects may be run by or be of benefit to women.

Rural Development Planning

The access of women to political and public life described in Article 7 applies equally to rural women.

Access to Health Care Facilities for Women in Rural Areas

The National Health Service (NHS) provides services on a comprehensive national basis. Except in emergencies the first point of contact is usually through the general medical practitioner who works within the Family Practitioner Service sector of the NHS. Within the Family Practitioner Service, General Medical Practioners provide medical care working in close conjunction with nurses and other members of primary health care teams. The Medical Practices Committee, an independent statutory body, has a duty to ensure an even distribution of General Medical Practitioners throughout the country. This means that people in rural areas enjoy access to health care on equal terms to those living in urban areas.

General Medical Practitioners may refer patients to hospital consultants. The Family Practitioner Service is administered by Family Practitioner Committees independently of (but in concert with) the hospital and community health services which are managed by health authorities. Resources are allocated to health authorities on the basis of a formula designed to measure the expected relative health care needs of the populations of areas covered, using demographic and mortality profiles with adjustments made to take account of special factors.

Social Security Programmes

Women in rural areas in the UK enjoy equal right of access to benefits with other women.

Training and Education

Statistics divided by sex for those undergoing or passing proficiency tests in agriculture are not available. However, the agriculture colleges and the Agricultural Training Board of England and Wales do not in any way discriminate between sexes. Indeed general observations suggest that the balance of women at colleges and on certain courses is higher than the employment ratio. The Agricultural Training Board has recently taken a decision in principle to try and promote special courses for women in agriculture.

Rural women have equal access to other types of education and training described in Article 10 as urban women.

Employment Opportunities

As noted above, although rural women have equal legal rights to employment and economic opportunities as other women or men, they are particularly disadvantaged by the lack of opportunities in sectors traditionally attractive to women.

Traditionally, agriculture has been seen to be a predominantly male occupation arising from traditional family life on the farm, with relatively harsh conditions of work and the necessary level of physical strength required. These conditions are less potent today but the farming community remains conservative and will not change its patterns of employment readily. There are, however, no special legal or quasi-legal discriminatory measures in agricultural employment either in favour or against women.

The statutory Agricultural Wages Boards (AWBs) of England and Wales set minimum levels of pay, benefits and conditions of service for workers in agriculture, regardless of sex. Employers often, however, pay more than the minimum rates, and in general the average rates received by men are slightly higher than those received by women.

Agriculture is a conservative industry which many view as male-dominated. However, the influence of women is stronger than generally realised, particularly with the smaller farm and in horticulture. Although there is some evidence that women may actually receive less pay than men, this may not be for comparable work, and there is no discrimination in the statutory minimum wages.

Community Activities

Women in rural areas (as in urban areas) have equal rights with men to participate in community activities.

Finance and Owning, Inheriting, Managing Agricultural Land

As stated in Article 13, women in all areas of the UK have equal access to financial services. In England and Wales under the law there is no discrimination against women owning, inheriting or managing agricultural land. The Agricultural Holdings Act 1986 which consolidates older legislation and governs the relationship of landlords and tenants applies equally to men and women. In practice many women own or rent land and farm either in their own right or in partnership with other members of the family.

Scotland

Women in rural areas are frequently involved in some aspect of agricultural work. Agriculture can be said to be predominantly a male occupation and this has originated from the traditional family concept of the farm in earlier times with its relatively harsh conditions of work and the unusually high level of physical strength required. Mechanisation and improved methods of farming have since encouraged female labour.

The statutory Agricultural Wages Board in Scotland sets minimum rates of wages benefits and conditions of service. Females receive the same rates of pay and benefits as males.

In agriculture as in the sister industries, health and safety legislation is administered by the Health and Safety Executive and applies equally to men and women. A specific measure of protection is afforded to women of reproductive age and capacity where teratogenic and embryotoxic agents are present. It is for the occupational health services to ensure that pregnant and lactating women are not unduly exposed.

Training for women in agriculture presently recognises the fact that wives play an important role in running the family farm. In many cases they manage and with training assume responsibility for bookkeeping, cash flow projections and mini computer applications. Women also act as trainers in the field and instruct apprentices on craft courses.

A Bill presently before Parliament will, if passed, extend the Training Board remit to allow training in activities outside the industry, diversification of agricultural business and amenity skills such as development of land and animal husbandry for recreational purposes. The Bill has the support of the Government.

Women should therefore find greater opportunity to display their inherent working skills with suitable training in these fresh pastures and participate successfully in their changing agricultural environment.

Wales

The Development Board for Rural Wales covers most of the rural area and has responsibilities for economic and social development. In addition to building factories and providing financial assistance it supports financially a range of community developments and organisations including recreational and cultural activities throughout its scattered and small communities.

The majority of support measures are open equally to men and women. However, the Development Board recognise the special problems women can face in rural areas and support projects which will be of benefit mainly to women. These schemes include Mother and Toddler Groups, Pre-School Playgroups, Welsh Women Aid and Ladies Sports Clubs. The Board, together with Manpower Services Commission, also run training courses specifically designed for women who want to explore the possibility of setting up in business. Some of the courses have been run in conjunction with Merched y Wawr - a women's organisation which caters for Welsh speakers. "Women into Business" has proved to be highly successful. In its first 3 years of operation some 180 women have attended the 19 courses run and well over 90 of them have gone on into business. These businesses include an industrial and commercial cleaning service, restaurant, interior design and decorating, wool fabric shop and a secretarial/service/agency with many of them employing full and part-time staff. In 1987/88 the board plan to run another 6 courses to which they hope to attract around 90 participants.

In addition the Welsh Office funds the costs of a rural co-ordinator for Welsh Women's Aid specifically to co-ordinate activities within the rural area where she is based. This was started in 1984/85. Under the Opportunities for Volunteering Scheme individual refugees have been grant aided. Finally the Wales under Fives Initiative is aimed amongst other things at helping isolated families in rural areas.

The Secretary of State for Wales announced the Rural Enterprise Initiative in March 1986 and through the Development of Rural Initiative Venture and Enterprise grant (DRIVE) additional private sector investment is stimulated. This scheme focuses on service, tourism, leisure and craft projects and together witrh the other forms of assistance provides the opportunity particularly for women tok develop business interests. Grants are available to convert redundant buildings such as old farm buildings and disused railway stations into workshops or small factories. Outside the area of the Development Board for Rural Wales the Welsh Development Agency provides similar type of support.

Housing

In general, the Government's housing policies do not treat women and men nor urban and rural women differently. However, where specific measures for women are needed these are taken. For example, the homelessness legislation places a statutory duty on local authorities to provide accommodation for certain priority categories of homeless households including pregnant women and single parent households (Part III Housing Act 1985). Another example is the provision of accommodation under the Government's hostels initiative for women who have been subjected to physical violence from their partners.

There are other policies which are of particular benefit to women. In 1985 the Government set up a new unit called Estate Action to devise, in conjunction with local authorities, imaginative solutions to tackle the problems of rundown council estates. The unit had a budget of £50m for 1986/87, rising to £75m for 1987/88. A key element of this initiative is the importance placed on consulting tenants about their housing needs. Many of the improvements being carried out on estates such as improved lighting of communal areas, and blocking off unnecessary walkways, have been designed with the security of women in mind.

Departments provide funding and assistance for Women's Aid Groups in recognition of their work for the homeless. Assistance has allowed for example participation by Scottish Women's Aid (SWA) in the Scottish Homeless Group (which consists of a number of national bodies including Shelter, Scottish Council for Single Parents and Scottish Council for Single Homeless), the production of detailed guidance on the Homeless Persons and the Matrimonial Homes Acts with particular reference to battered women, and contributing to training sessions and seminars.

The Urban Programme encourages local authorities to develop a co-ordinated approach to tackle the problems of inner cities and other areas of urban deprivation. The Urban Programme helps fund a wide range of projects on economic, environmental, social and housing issues. Many projects improve the circumstances of women: in Scotland, for example, Women's Aid Hostels and Women's Aid Centres have been funded.

Research work at present being undertaken might point to future change. It has become increasingly apparent that the traditional image of the household headed by a male is no longer necessarily the true picture; for example, research work presently being undertaken in Scotland on the assessment of housing needs shows that the number of households headed by women is projected to increasse by 26% between 1983 and 1996, compared with an increase of only 2% in households headed by men. The largest proportionate increases are among women aged between 30 and 44.

Recent trends in household formation which have resulted in an increasing focus on the housing needs of women are:

- the growth in the number of single person households;

- the increasing number of new households formed as a consequence of marital breakdown;

- the growth in the number of single parent families; and

- the increasing size of the elderly population which, because of differing mortality rates, contains a substantial majority of females.

In Scotland, in addition to work on the assessment of housing needs including those stemming from marital breakdown, special projects on local authority procedures under the Homeless Persons Act, local authority waiting lists and the housing needs of the elderly (65+) are also being undertaken. Each of these projects has the potential to highlight areas for future changes in relation to women and housing.

Sanitation and Water Supply

In general, householders in both rural and urban areas pay for their domestic water supply, sewerage and sewage disposal services through charges based on rateable value of their property. Such services are available throughout the United Kingdom and are supplied under the Water Act 1973 by 30 Statutory water supply companies.

Electricity

The first public supply of electricity in the world was in 1881, at Godalming (Surrey). In 1948 all municipal and private undertakings in Great Britain were acquired under the Electricity Act 1947 and vested in the British Electricity Authority and 14 regional boards, except in the north of Scotland where they became the responsibility of the North of Scotland Hydro Electric Board (NSHEB) which had been set up in 1943. Two subsequent Acts (1954 and 1957) effected a measure of decentralisation and established the present structure of public corporations. Electricity from the public supply system is available to all premises in Britain except for very remote rural households. The main transmission system (national grid) in England and Wales is one of the largest fully interconnected power networks under unified control in the Western world.

The Energy Act 1983 allows private generation to compete with the public supply industry. It entitles private generators of electricity to sell their electricity to the boards on terms reflecting costs fairly incurred by the boards, and allows them to use the public transmission and distribution system.

Public Passenger Transport

Deregulation of local bus services has allowed free competition between bus operators which is leading to more effective matching of services to demand, increased efficiency and greater restraint on fares. This is of particular value to women and especially rural women. 47% of all women use a bus at least one a day a week compared with 27% of men. 60% of bus trips (excluding those made by children under 16) are made by women. Slow but steady progress is being made by women in employment as bus drivers. In 1967 0.4% of bus drivers are women; by 1981 this proportion had risen to 2 5%. The increasing use of minibuses may well accelerate this trend.

Communications

Telecommunications is one of the most rapidly growing sectors of the economy. The Government has introduced two major Acts to establish a new framework for telecommunications in Britain.

The British Telecommunications Act 1981 separated the Post Office into two corporations, one for postal and banking services and the other for telecommunications (British Telecom). It also promoted the introduction of competition into the market for the supply of telecommunications equipment, the provision of certain telecommunications services and the running telecommunications networks. Under the Act, the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry has licensed Mercury Communications Ltd to run a second national network in competition with that run by British Telecom, and two further companies, Racal Vodafone Ltd and Telecom Securicor Cellular Radio Ltd, to provide competing national cellular radio networks. He has issued a general licence to permit private sector firms to provide value added services over British Telecom's public network. Some 190 service providers have been licensed to offer over 800 services. In addition, private sector firms are able to supply, install and maintain equipment attached to British Telecom's network.

The Telecommunications Act 1984 strengthened the measures taken to promote competition. It removes British Telecom's statutory monopoly to provide telecommunications services and establishes arrangements for the licensing of all telecommunications systems including that of British Telecom. These licences are being issued by the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry or, subject to his authority, by the Director General of Telecommunications (head of a new Office of Telecommunications). The Director General is required, among other things, to ensure that licensees comply with the conditions of their licences; to promote the interests of telecommunications users, including the investigation of complaints; and to monitor telecommunications activities in Britain. In British Telecom's case the conditions of its licence contain certain obligations such as the provision of services throughout Britain including services to rural aress the provision of public call boxes, a free-of charge emergency service, and the provision of certain services and apparatus for the disabled.

The Post Office, founded in 1635, pioneered postal services and was the first to issue adhesive postage stamps as proof of advance payment for mail. The Royal Mail provides deliveries to 23 million addresses and handles 43 million letters and parcels each working day (11,000 million items a year). Mail is collected from over

100,000 posting boxes, as well as from post offices and large postal users. The Post Office hs a monopoly on the conveyance of letters, but under the British Telecommunications Act 1981 the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry has the power to suspend the monopoly in certain areas or for certain categories of mail and to license others to provide competing services. The Secretary of State has relaxed the monopoly on letters subject to a minimum fee of £1 and has isssued general licences enabling mail to be transferred between document exchanges and allowing charitable organisations to carry Christmas and New Year cards.

All 80 offices equipped with mechanical mail handling equipment are in operation and are gradually taking over the work of hundreds of sorting offices handling letters manually. All addresses in Britain have a postcode and the British system is the most sophisticated in the world allowing mechanised sorting down to part of a street on a postman's round and, in some cases, to an individual address. Some 34 large parcel centres, each serving a group of counties, have taken over the work of 1,200 offices which handled parcels manually.

As well as postal and National Girobank services, post offices handle a wide range of transactions. In much of its counter service the Post Office acts as agent for government departments and local authorities. In February 1984 the Post Office announced a scheme for introducing new technology into its counter services. The modernised network will reduce costs and raise productivity, while providing an improved range of services to customers. There are 22,000 post offices, of which 1,500 are operated directly by the Post Office and the remainder on an agency basis by sub-postmasters.

All of these communication services are provided without discrimination between men and women.

Environment

The Government's environmental protection policies, including unleaded petrol, cleaner beaches and lead-free decorative paint, are aimed at enhancing the quality of life for the whole commmunity.

ARTICLE 15

Article 15(1) of the Convention requires State Parties to accord equality to both men and women before the law. No distinction is made by the law in the United Kingdom between men and women. They are both accorded the same legal personality. Women have the same rights as men and there is no bar preventing women from bringing actions before any court or tribunal. For example, either spouse by reason of the Law Reform (Husband and Wife) Act 1962 has the same right of action against the other in tort, and a woman has since the Law Reform (Married Woman's and Tortfeasors) Act 1935 been able to hold and dispose of all property whether by herself or with another person. A woman can enter any contract or sue or be sued on such a contract and be subject to the bankruptcy laws in exactly the same way as a man. English law provides assistance in the form of legal aid to people who wish to pursue legal remedies before the courts. The conditions for granting legal aid or advice under the Legal Aid Act 1974 are that a person's income and capital should fall within certain prescribed limits and that it is reasonable for such an action to be brought. Women are just as eligible as men for legal aid providing the prescribed conditions are fulfilled In criminal cases Legal Aid is granted in almost 100% of all cases and is given equally to men and women. The table at the end of this Section gives the number of civil Legal Aid certificates issued during the last five years. Records of the number of such certificates issued to women are only kept for matrimonial cases.

The United Kingdom interprets Article 15(3) as applying to instruments which seek to restrict the legal capacity of women as a group. There are no laws in the United Kingdom which to this.

Article 15(4) provides "State Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile". Again, English law accords equality of treatment between men and women in respect of these rights. "Residence" under English law means physical presence other than casually or as a traveller (Sinclair v Sinclair [1986] P 189 (CA)). Every person subject to English law is held to have a "residence" which is determined on the criteria of physical presence of that person and no other criteria. It is possible for a husband and wife for example. to have different residences to each other. There are two forms of domicile under English law. Domicile of origin which is acquired at birth and is the same as the domicile of the person upon whom the child is legally dependent, and domicile of choice which is acquired by an individual moving to another country and intending to remain there indefinitely. Any person, not legally dependent upon another, may at any time change his existing domicile and acquire for himself a domicile of choice by the fact of residing in a country other than that of his domicile of origin with the intention of continuing to reside there indefinitely. A person ceases to be legally dependent on another at the age of sixteen or if he or she marries under that age. These rules apply equally to men and women. By virtue of section 1(1) of the Domicile and Matrimonial Proceedings Act 1973 a married woman is not incapacitated by the fact of her marriage from acquiring a domicile of choice, and she may change her domicile independently of her husband.

Scotland

The Law of Scotland on the property of married couples is based upon the rule that each spouse's property remains his or her separate property. The Family Law (Scotland) Act 1985 confirmed that marriage, of itself, has no effect upon either the respective rights of the parties to the marriage in relation to their property or upon the party's legal status.

STATISTICS ON CIVIL LEGAL AID CERTIFICATES

YEAR	TOTAL NUMBER OF CIVIL LEGAL AID CERTIFICATES ISSUED EACH YEAR	TOTAL NUMBER OF CIVIL LEGAL AID CERTIFICATES USED FOR MATRIMONIAL PROCEEDINGS EACH YEAR	PERCENTAGE OF MATRIMONIAL LEGAL AID CERTIFICATES ISSUED TO WOMEN
1981/82	176,596	112,949	72.62
1982/83	190,044	118,428	72.11
1983/84	206,269	120,347	70.70
1984/85	222,559	123,087	70.17
1985/86	232,813	124,410	70.27

ARTICLE 16

The law of England and Wales does not discriminate against women in matters relating to marriage and the family. In all aspects women are treated equally with men. This equality can be demonstrated by looking at each individual aspect of family law.

Rights to Marriage

Marriage law is based on the free consent of both parties to enter into a voluntary union to the exclusion of all others. Anyone is free to marry without consent on reaching the age of 18. These age limits apply equally to both men and women. The presumption is that at 18 all people are responsible enough to marry and to vote. This is in accordance with the principles contained in Article 16(1)(a) and (b). The only restrictions on marriage are:-

(a) that a marriage between any party under the age of 16 is void (section 2 of the Marriage Act 1949);

(b) parental consent or the consent of the court is required if one party to the marriage is under the age of 18 (section 3 of the Marriage Act 1949). Such consent would only be given if the party has sufficient maturity to undertake the obligations and responsibilities of marriage which most people have once they reach the age of eighteen.

(c) couples who fall within the consanguineous and affinal relationships set out in Schedule 1 of the Marriage Act 1949 (which in respect of affinal relationships have been relaxed by the Marriage (Prohibited Degrees of Relationship) Act 1986) may not marry;

(d) no marriage is permitted where the parties are already legally married; and,

(e) no marriage is permitted where the parties are not respectively male or female.

All the above restrictions apply equally both to men and women.

Article 16(2) provides that the "betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect". A child as stated above, cannot marry under the age 16 in the United Kingdom. The rules of private international law of the United Kingdom do sometimes recognise foreign marriages where one or both of the parties are under the age of 16. English law will recognise foreign marriages, when the issue concerns capacity, like the age of a party, by reference to the ante-nuptual domicilian law of each party or possibly to the law of the intended matrimonial home. If that law permits a marriage at a certain age then English law would also recognise it. This is to ensure that there are no limping marriages (ie these marriages valid in one country but not in another).

There are no 'contractual marriages' in the United Kingdom. Each marriage in England and Wales must conform with the requirements of the Marriage Acts 1949 to 1986. A marriage has to be celebrated in a registry office, or in a church of the Church of England or another place of worship registered for the celebration of marriage under the Marriage Acts. All marriages have to take place before a person entitled to celebrate a marriage ceremony. Under the English rules of private international law, however, a contractual marriage "celebrated" in another country may be recognised as a valid marriage.

Rights Upon Marriage

As described in Article 11 above, discrimination on the grounds of sex or marital status is generally unlawful in the field of employment. A wife's rights to choose a profession or an occupation are no different from any other woman's.

During a marriage a woman has exactly the same rights as a man in respect of property, inheritance, capacity to enter a contract and in relation to the legal custody or upbringing of a child of a minor (section 1 of the Guardianship Act 1973). A woman does not require the consent of her husband, and vice versa, in commercial transactions. She has the right to purchase property or enter into contractual property or enter into contractual relationship either on her own or with her husband or any third party. A wife like her husband is a free agent to conclude agreements or to hold property and may dispose of their property by will to whom they wish. If no will is made the property is disposed according to the rules of intestate succession. In respect of custody of the children of a marriage, a mother has joint legal custody with the father. She can only be deprived of custody by an Order of a court. A mother has equal rights with a father to apply to the court (under section 9 of the Guardianship of Minors Act 1971) to determine any dispute relating to the legal custody or the right of access to a child by its mother or father. In a marriage a woman owes protection to her husband in the same way as he does to her.

Both spouses have right of access to family planning services and/or contraceptives. They both have equal rights to determine when, how many and at what intervals to have children.

There is no property in a name in English law. Generally on marriage women assume the name of their husband but there is nothing to prevent her continuing to use her name. Alternatively, the parties could decide on a completely new name.

Rights to Consensual Unions

English law takes a pragmatic approach to cohabitees and their rights. There are no restrictions on them living together but the law ensures that cohabitees' clear intentions in relation to their respective proprietary rights will be enforced. This is so irrespective of whether the intentions are enshrined in an agreement, or arise from the expenditure of money by one party to acquire or assist in acquiring a property from which it would be inequitable for the other party to benefit. A cohabitee does not have the right to apply to a court for maintenance on the failure of the other cohabitee to maintain him or her.

The law does however give a cohabitee rights to apply for protection under the Domestic Violence and Matrimonial Proceedings Act 1976 against domestic violence, providing the parties are living together as man and wife. This allows them to apply for non molestation orders and ouster injunctions in exactly the same way as married couples.

The children of consensual unions are illegitimate. There is no figure for the number of children arising from these unions, although the total number of illegitimate children in England and Wales in 1980 was 77,400. The mother has sole legal custody by virtue of Section 85(7) of the Children Act 1975 unless the father has obtained an order for legal custody under sections 9 and 14 of the Guardianship of Minors Act 1971. Also the father has no rights of access to his child unless he has obtained an order for the court. If the Family Law Reform Bill, which was introduced into Parliament in November 1986, is enacted the father will be able to apply to the court for the parental rights and duties over the illegitimate child. These will remain vested in the mother unless and until an order is made under the Family Law Reform Bill provisions. He will also be entitled to apply on the child's behalf for maintenance or other financial provision which at present he cannot do.

Dissolution of Marriage

Section 1 of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 provides that "a petition for divorce" may be presented to the court by either party to a marriage on the ground that the marriage has broken down irretrievably. A petition for divorce can be brought by either spouse. Annex I sets out the number of petitions presented during the past five years and it can be seen by the table that women in England and Wales present more petitions than men.

Similarly petitions for nullity of marriage under sections 11 and 12 of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 can equally be presented by both men and women. Again between 1981 and 1984 women presented more petitions for nullity of marriage than men.

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Total number of Petitions for nullity	1050	921	887	1036	No figures are available for this year.
Total number of petitions filed by husbands	430	400	320	480	

Total number of petitions filed by wives	620	520	570	560

Note: The discrepancies between the total figures and the number of petitions filed by husbands and wives arise because the latter are estimates based on the number of petitions filed at the Principle Registry of the Family Division and a two month sample of county court decisions.

Judicial Separation

Judicially separated women cannot remarry which is the main difference between them and divorced women. A decree of judicial separation terminates the duty of cohabitation and revokes the consent to submit to sexual intercourse which is implied from the existence of marriage; accordingly a man may, if the necessary facts can be proved, be convicted of raping his wife if a judicial separation is in force. On the granting of a decree of judicial separation the court's ancillary financial and custody powers, which it can use on divorce, may be invoked. For the purposes of intestate succession a decree operates as a divorce (see section 18(2) of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973). Neither spouse has thereafter any right to succeed to the property of the other on intestacy, although this does not prevent a spouse applying to the court as a spouse for reasonable provision under the Intestance (Provision for Family and Dependants) Act 1975.

Financial Relief on Divorce

On divorce the court has wide ranging powers to determine financial relief for the parties to a former marriage and in respect of the children of the former family. The court has power to make secured and unsecured periodical payments, lump sum payments, transfers of property, settlements of property, variation of anti-nuptual or post-nuptual settlements and the power to order the sale of any property of the family. Before exercising any of its powers the court is required to have regard to the guidelines set out in section 25 of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 (which was recently amended by section 3 of the Matrimonial and Family Proceedings Act 1984) These powers require the court to have regard to all the circumstances of the case, first consideration being given to the welfare while a minor of any child of the family who has not attained the age of 18. The specific rules set in subsection (2) of section 25 (Annex J) require the court to have regard to the income and financial resources of each spouse and the role which each of them has taken in the marriage and will or hope to take in the future. The object of these powers is to make a fair and just order in all the circumstances of each case. Both the former spouses are at liberty to make any financial provision application they may wish and these are treated in exactly the same way by the court irrespective of which spouse brings the application.

Termination of Custody of Children of a Former Marriage on Divorce

Sections 41 to 44 of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 provides the court with the power to make orders in respect of the children of a former marriage. The court on such applications must have regard to the welfare of the child as the first and paramount consideration; it will not consider the claim of either parent as being superior to the other (section 1 of the Guardianship of Minors Act 1971). In every case the prime question is what is the best interest of the child. In 1985 82,059 custody orders were made in matrimonial proceedings. Custody was awarded to former wives in 63,540 cases and to former husbands in only 7,512. 10,607 joint custody orders were also made during 1985.

Children

As stated above, English law vests the parental rights and duties over a child jointly in the parents of a legitimate chid and in the mother, subject to a court order to the contrary, of an illegitimate child. However, the law recognises that the parental right to control a child is a dwindling right which exists only in so far as it is required for the child's benefit and protection (Gillick v West Norfolk and Wisbech Area Health Authority [1985] 3WLR 830 HL) There is no fixed age at which this right is extinguished, it depends on the degree of intelligence and understanding of each particular child and a judgement of what is best for the welfare of the child. Once a child has sufficient intelligence and understanding to make a decision itself, then the parents have no right to take the decision for the child. To use Lord Denning M. R's description of the parental duty of control "It starts with a right of control and ends with little more than advice". (Hewer v Bryand [1970] IQB357 at page 309). In addition, the law grants children, at different ages different rights or duties. At 17 a child can drive and a child can be tried for a criminal offence over the age of 10 but not under that age. A child can marry with parental consent or with the consent of the court at 16. He can work full time at 16. He can also buy cigarettes at 16; go into a pub accompanied at 14; unaccompanied at 16; and drink alcohol there at 18. A mother under the age of 18 has all the legal parental rights, subject to a court order to the contrary, to decide whether to keep her baby, bring it up, or have it fostered, put in care or adopted.

English law also enables applications for custody or access in respect of children to be made under the guardianship of Minors Act 1971, Part II of the Children Act 1975, and under Part I of the Domestic Proceedings and Magistrates' Courts Act 1978. Under all these applications a court must have regard to the welfare of the child as the first and paramount consideration. The claims of either parent are not considered as superior to the other. The same criteria applies where a child is made a ward of court. English law also makes provision for the adoption of children. A court determining an application for adoption must give first consideration to the need to safeguard and promote the welfare of the child throughout his childhood (section 3 of the Children Act 1975). This test does not place the child's interest as the paramount consideration as in other applications concerning the custody of children but does give it a principal position. Most adoptions in England and Wales concern children who are under 3/4 years old. They would normally have been living with the adopters for some time and therefore their emotional bonds will be with the adoptive parents rather than their natural parents, about whom they would have forgotten. Older children may react against the "voluntary surrender" by their parents, but these children's wishes, including their reaction to the proposed adoption order, would be sought and taken into account by the court before it made any order in the adoption proceedings.

Protection of the Rights to Live in the Family Home and Protection Against Domestic Violence

Both the criminal law and the civil law provide remedies to protect a spouse from domestic violence. The criminal law may be invoked against the violent spouse for offences ranging from murder and manslaughter, and attempts thereat, through unlawful wounding, grievious bodily harm; assault occasioning actual bodily harm and aggravated assault, to common assault. The civil law, by the Matrimonial Homes Act 1983, the Domestic Violence and Matrimonial Proceedings Act 1976 and the Supreme Court Act 1981, enables the court to make non-molestation orders and ouster injunctions which restrain one spouse from assaulting molesting or annoying the other spouse and excluding him or her from the matrimonial home. In addition, the Domestic Proceedings and Magistrates' Court Act 1978 gives power to magistrates' courts to make personal protection orders or exclusion orders. There is no restriction on either men or women applying for the aid of the criminal or civil law when they have been the victims of domestic violence

In November 1986 the Welsh Office sponsored a seminar for Welsh Women's Aid and the police on their role in domestic violence. The seminar was proposed and arranged by Welsh Women's Aid as a direct result of the Women's National Commission's reports' recommendation that there should be greater co operation between the police and Women's Aid particularly in police training on domestic violence

In December 1986 the United Kingdom sent an expert to Vienna to attend the Expert Group Meeting on Violence in the Family with Special Emphasis on its Effects on Women organised jointly by the Branches for the Advancement of Women and for Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice in the UN Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. The United Kingdom already fully or partially implements many of the recommendations of this Group and the Home Office is considering what further can be done.

Scotland

It is a statutory responsibility of the Scottish Law Commission to keep the law under review and to submit proposals for reform to Ministers. This is in addition to research into the operation of the law that is commissioned directly by the Scottish Office. In recent years a number of Commission's recommendations for reform of matrimonial and family law have been implemented. The Law Reform (Husband and Wife) (Scotland) Act 1984 implemented the recommendations of the Commission's Report on Outdated rules of law that were obsolete and discriminatory. The Family Law (Scotland) Act 1985 implemented the recommendations of the Scottish Law Commission's Reports on Aliment and Financial Provision on Divorce and Matrimonial Property. The Act simplifies and modernises the law of aliment, is intended to promote greater fairness and consistency in awards of financial provision on divorce and clarifies the law relating to the property rights and legal capacity of married couples.

The law of divorce in Scotland does not discriminate between men and women in this respect and the right of divorce is equally available to both parties of a marriage.

In all questions concerning custody or access the paramount consideration which the courts in Scotland are required to take into account is the welfare of the child. In the majority of cases the court will recognise that it is in the best interests of the child to maintain contact with both parents after separation or divorce. The initiation of divorce proceedings does not itself involve the loss of any rights or freedoms.

The Law Reform (Parent and Child) (Scotland) Act 1986 implemented the recommendations of the Scottish Law Commission for the removal or amendment of provisions which discriminated against illegitimate children and their parents.

On domestic violence, the Matrimonial Homes (Family Protection) (Scotland) Act 1981 inter alia, strengthened the law on matrimonial interdicts and made new provision in relation to the rights of occupancy of spouses in a matrimonial home. Revised guidelines to the police in Scotland about the provisions of the Act issued by the Lord Advocate in November 1986 stress, among other things, that the safety of the aggrieved woman and her family should be of paramount concern to the police. Research is currently being undertaken into the operation of the Act.

Housing and the Homeless is a concern of the Government. The Scottish Development Department (SDD) provide on going funding jointly with the Social Work Services Group to Scottish Women's Aid (the national campaigning and co-ordinating body for all Women's Aid Groups running refuges in Scotland for battered women and their children) in recognition of Scottish Women's Aid's homelessness activities. These include participation in the Scottish Homeless

Group (which consists of a number of national bodies including Shelter, Scottish Council for Single Parents and Scottish Council for Single Homeless), the production of detailed guidance on the Homeless Persons and the Matrimonial Homes Acts with particular reference to battered women, and contributing to training sessions and seminars.

The Urban Programme in Scotland, b its emphasis on improving the quality of life for residents of deprived urban areas, contributes to improving the circumstances of disadvantaged women in Scotland. More specifically several projects funded under the urban programme are directly related to the needs of women (for example, Women's Aid Hostels and Women's Aid Centres throughout Scotland).

Recent trends in household formation which have resulted in an increasing focus on the housing needs of women are:

- the growth in the number of single person households;
- the increasing number of new households formed as a consequence of marital breakdown;
- the growth in the number of single parent families;
- the increasing size of the elderly population which, because of differing mortality rates, contains a substantial majority of females.

In addition to on-going work on the assessment of housing needs, special projects on Local Authority procedures under the Homeless Persons Act, Local Authority waiting lists, the housing consequences of matrimonial breakdown and the housing needs of the elderly (65+) are also being undertaken by SDD. Each of these projects has the potential to highlight areas for future change in relation to women and housing.

STATISTICAL TABLES

Table 1.1 Age and sex structure of the population

United Kingdom Millions

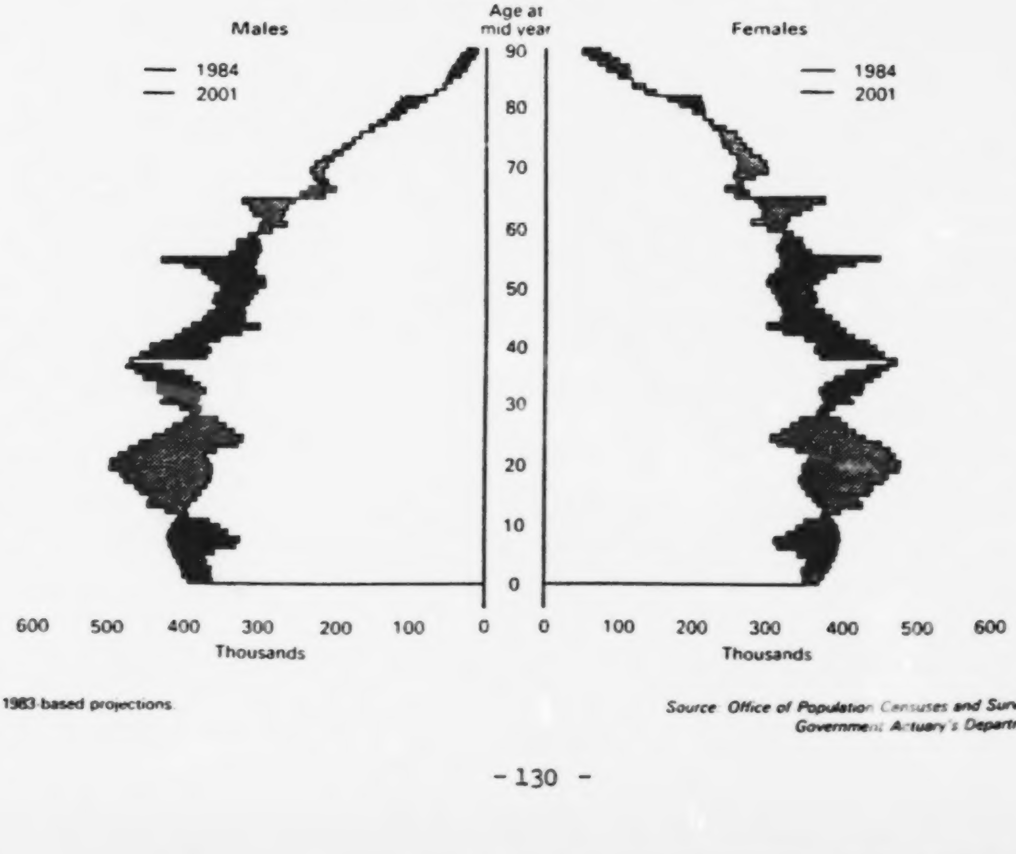
	0-4	5-14	15-29	30-44	45-59	60-64	65-74	75-84	85+	All ages
Census enumerated										
1901	4.4	8.0	10.8	7.5	4.6	1.1	1.3	0.5		38.2
1911	4.5	8.4	11.2	8.9	5.6	1.2	1.6	0.6		42.1
1921	3.9	8.4	11.2	9.3	7.0	1.5	1.9	0.7		44.0
1931	3.5	7.6	11.8	9.7	8.0	1.9	2.5	1.0		46.1
Mid-year estimates										
1941	3.4	6.7	9.2	10.3	8.5	2.4	3.1	1.2		44.8
1951	4.3	7.1	10.2	11.2	9.6	2.5	3.7	1.8		50.3
1961	4.3	8.1	10.3	10.5	10.6	2.8	4.0	1.9	0.3	52.8
1971	4.5	8.9	11.8	9.8	10.2	3.2	4.8	2.2	0.5	55.9
1976	3.7	9.2	12.4	10.0	9.8	3.1	5.1	2.3	0.5	56.2
1981	3.5	8.1	12.9	11.0	9.5	2.9	5.2	2.7	0.6	56.4
1982	3.5	7.8	13.0	11.0	9.4	3.0	5.1	2.7	0.6	56.3
1983	3.6	7.6	13.1	11.1	9.4	3.2	5.0	2.8	0.6	56.4
1984										
Males	1.8	3.8	6.7	5.6	4.6	1.5	2.1	1.0	0.2	27.5
Females	1.8	3.6	6.5	5.6	4.7	1.7	2.7	1.9	0.5	29.0
Total	3.6	7.4	13.3	11.2	9.3	3.3	4.8	2.9	0.7	56.5
Projections[2]										
1986	3.6	7.1	13.4	11.4	9.2	3.1	5.0	3.0	0.7	56.5
1991	3.9	7.0	12.8	11.9	9.4	2.8	5.0	3.0	0.9	56.8
1996	4.1	7.5	11.4	12.4	10.4	2.7	4.9	3.0	1.0	57.3
2001	3.9	7.9	10.6	13.0	10.9	2.7	4.7	3.0	1.0	57.7

[1] See Appendix, Part 1: Population and population projections.
[2] 1983-based projections.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; Government Actuary's Department

Chart 1.2 Population by sex and age, 1984 and 2001

United Kingdom



[1] 1983-based projections.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; Government Actuary's Department

Table 1.5 Adult population: by sex, age, and marital status, 1984

Great Britain

Percentages and thousands

	Males					Females				
	Single	Married[1]	Widowed	Divorced	Total (= 100%) (thousands)	Single	Married[1]	Widowed	Divorced	Total (= 100%) (thousands)
Age *(percentages)*										
16-24	*88.9*	*10.8*	-	*0.3*	4,145.7	*77.3*	*21.9*	-	*0.8*	3,989.5
25-34	*30.0*	*64.8*	*0.1*	*5.1*	3,818.1	*18.0*	*74.5*	*0.3*	*7.1*	3,752.0
35-44	*11.1*	*81.3*	*0.4*	*7.3*	3,639.7	*6.0*	*83.8*	*1.3*	*9.0*	3,604.4
45-59	*8.9*	*83.5*	*1.9*	*5.7*	4,513.8	*6.1*	*79.8*	*7.6*	*6.5*	4,584.9
60-64	*8.4*	*82.7*	*5.5*	*3.3*	1,515.0	*7.6*	*67.6*	*20.6*	*4.3*	1,685.4
65-74	*7.6*	*78.3*	*11.6*	*2.5*	2,066.9	*9.5*	*49.3*	*38.1*	*3.0*	2,665.6
75 or over	*7.5*	*60.5*	*30.2*	*1.4*	1,144.4	*13.4*	*21.0*	*64.3*	*1.4*	2,321.6
All aged 16 or over	*28.8*	*63.4*	*3.7*	*4.1*	20,843.6	*21.9*	*58.8*	*14.4*	*4.9*	22,603.4

[1] Including separated people.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

Table 1.14 Death rates: by age and sex

United Kingdom

Rates per thousand population and thousands

	Age										All ages	Total deaths (thousands)
	Under 1[1]	1-4	5-14	15-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75-84	85+		
1961												
Males	24.8	1.1	0.4	1.1	2.5	7.5	22.3	55.1	125.0	258.6	12.6	322.0
Females	19.3	0.8	0.3	0.6	1.8	4.5	11.1	31.5	89.1	215.9	11.4	309.8
1971												
Males	20.2	0.8	0.4	1.0	2.4	7.2	20.5	51.4	114.7	235.6	12.2	328.5
Females	15.5	0.6	0.3	0.5	1.6	4.4	10.3	26.8	75.2	189.5	11.1	316.5
1976												
Males	16.4	0.7	0.3	1.0	2.2	7.2	20.1	51.4	118.5	250.8	12.6	341.9
Females	12.4	0.5	0.2	0.5	1.5	4.4	10.5	26.6	75.9	203.0	11.8	338.9
1981												
Males	12.7	0.6	0.3	0.9	1.9	6.3	18.1	46.3	106.3	226.6	12.0	329.1
Females	9.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	1.3	3.9	9.8	24.7	66.9	178.4	11.4	328.8
1983												
Males	11.4	0.5	0.3	0.9	1.8	5.9	18.0	46.4	104.6	221.8	12.0	328.8
Females	8.9	0.4	0.2	0.4	1.2	3.6	9.8	24.7	65.1	177.0	11.4	330.3
1984												
Males	10.7	0.5	0.3	0.8	1.7	5.7	17.5	45.1	100.8	212.8	11.7	321.1
Females	8.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	1.2	3.5	9.7	24.3	62.5	170.1	11.2	323.8

[1] Rate per 1,000 live births.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

ble 2.10 One-parent families[1]: by household composition

Great Britain

Percentages and numbers

	Marital status of lone mothers													
	Single		Widowed		Divorced		Separated		All lone mothers		All lone fathers		All one-parent families	
	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83	1973-75	1981-83
Household composition														
Living alone	*36*	*56*	*88*	*88*	*74*	*84*	*78*	*80*	*72*	*77*	*70*	*82*	*72*	*78*
Living with parents	*49*	*32*	*7*	*3*	*15*	*5*	*13*	*8*	*18*	*11*	*11*	*8*	*17*	*11*
Living with relatives	*7*	*5*	*4*	*7*	*4*	*3*	*3*	*4*	*4*	*4*	*8*	*3*	*5*	*4*
Living with non-relatives														
Male	*7*	*4*	*2*	*3*	*7*	*7*	*5*	*5*	*5*	*5*	*1*	*2*	*5*	*5*
Female	*1*	*2*	*0*	*0*	–	*2*	*1*	*3*	–	*2*	*10*	*5*	*2*	*2*
Sample size (= 100%) (numbers)	182	298	256	196	350	578	302	287	1,090	1,359	183	165	1,273	1,524

[1] See Appendix, Part 2: Families.

[2] Based on relationship of lone parent to other family heads

Source General Household Survey, combined data for 1973-1975 inclusive, and 1981-1983 inclusive

Table 2.11 Employment status of married and lone mothers: by age of youngest dependent child, 1982-1984

Great Britain

Percentages and numbers

	Married mothers age of youngest dependent child				Lone mothers age of youngest dependent child			
	0-4	5-9	10 or over	All ages	0-4	5-9	10 or over	All ages
Employment status *(percentages)*								
Mother – not working	*74*	*43*	*31*	*51*	*83*	*58*	*45*	*61*
– working part-time	*21*	*44*	*44*	*35*	*11*	*29*	*26*	*22*
– working full-time	*6*	*12*	*25*	*14*	*6*	*14*	*28*	*17*
Sample size (= 100%) (numbers)	3,578	2,062	3,380	9,020	416	312	524	1,252

Source General Household Survey, combined data for 1982-1984 inclusive

Table 2.12 Household division of labour: by marital status, 1984

Great Britain

Percentages

	Married people[1]						Never-married people[2]		
	Actual allocation of tasks			Tasks should be allocated to			Tasks should be allocated to		
	Mainly man	Mainly woman	Shared equally	Mainly man	Mainly woman	Shared equally	Mainly man	Mainly woman	Shared equally
Household tasks *(percentage[3] allocation)*									
Washing and ironing	*1*	*88*	*9*	-	*77*	*21*	-	*68*	*30*
Preparation of evening meal	*5*	*77*	*16*	*1*	*61*	*35*	*1*	*49*	*49*
Household cleaning	*3*	*72*	*23*	-	*51*	*45*	*1*	*42*	*56*
Household shopping	*6*	*54*	*39*	-	*35*	*62*	-	*31*	*68*
Evening dishes	*18*	*37*	*41*	*12*	*21*	*64*	*13*	*15*	*71*
Organisation of household money and bills	*32*	*38*	*28*	*23*	*15*	*58*	*19*	*16*	*63*
Repairs of household equipment	*83*	*6*	*8*	*79*	*2*	*17*	*74*	-	*24*
Child-rearing *(percentage[3] allocation)*									
Looks after the children when they are sick	*1*	*63*	*35*	-	*49*	*47*	-	*48*	*50*
Teaches the children discipline	*10*	*12*	*77*	*12*	*5*	*80*	*16*	*4*	*80*

[1] 1,120 married respondents, except for the questions on actual allocation of child-rearing tasks which were answered by 479 respondents with children under 16.

[2] 283 never-married respondents. The table excludes results of the formerly married (widowed, divorced, or separated) respondents.

[3] 'Don't knows' and non-response to the question mean that some categories do not sum to 100 per cent.

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, 1984, *Social and Community Planning Research*

Table 2.26 Legal abortions[1]

Great Britain Thousands and percentages

	Women resident in Great Britain								
	1969	1971	1973	1976	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
Age of women (thousands)									
Under 16 years	1	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
16 to 19 years	9	19	25	26	34	34	34	33	36
20 to 34 years	32	60	68	61	79	80	79	79	86
35 to 44 years	10	17	19	16	19	19	19	18	19
45 years and over		1	1		1	1	1	-	
Age unknown	1	2	2	2		1	-	-	
Place of abortion (thousands)									
NHS hospitals	37	60	63	58	68	70	71	71	74
Private hospitals and clinics	16	41	55	51	69	68	66	65	72
Total number of abortions (thousands)	53	101	118	109	137	138	137	136	146
Marital status and number of previous children[2] *(percentages)*									
Single women									
No children	*40*	*42*	*42*	*44*	*47*	*46*	*47*	*49*	*50*
One or more children	*4*	*4*	*5*	*5*	*6*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*8*
Total[3]	*44*	*46*	*48*	*50*	*54*	*54*	*56*	*58*	*60*
Married women									
No children	*3*	*3*	*3*	*4*	*4*	*4*	*4*	*4*	*4*
One to three children	*29*	*30*	*30*	*29*	*26*	*25*	*24*	*23*	*22*
Four or more children	*14*	*11*	*9*	*6*	*4*	*4*	*3*	*3*	*3*
Total[3]	*47*	*45*	*42*	*39*	*34*	*33*	*31*	*30*	*28*
Widowed, divorced, and separated women[4]	*9*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*13*	*13*	*12*	*12*
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*

[1] Legal abortions carried out under the *Abortion Act 1967*.

[2] Data for England & Wales for the years 1969 to 1980 inclusive relate to previous live born children; from 1981 data include previous live and stillborn children. Data for Scotland relate to preceding completed pregnancies of the mother.

[3] Total includes number of previous children not stated.

[4] Includes marital status not stated.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; Scottish Health Service, Common Services Agency

Table 3.1 Education and day care of children under five

United Kingdom Thousands and percentages

		1966	1971	1976	1981	1982	1983	1984
Children under 5 in schools (thousands)								
Public sector schools								
Nursery schools	– all day	26	20	20	22	21	20	20
	– part day	9	29	54	67	69	73	75
Primary schools	– all day	220	263	350	281	274	281	311
	– part day		38	117	167	180	198	210
Non-maintained schools	– all day	21	19	19	19	20	18	19
	– part day	2	14	12	12	11	13	14
Special schools	– all day	2	2	4	4	4	4	4
	– part day	-	-	1	1	1	1	2
Total		280	384	576	573	581	608	654
As a percentage of all children aged 3 or 4		*15.0*	*20.5*	*34.5*	*44.3*	*44.2*	*43.7*	*45.3*
Maintained or registered day care places[2] (thousands)								
Maintained day nurseries and playgroups		21	23	35	37	37	39	38
Registered nurseries and playgroups		75	296	401	456	453[3]	471	479
Registered child minders		32	90	86	110[3]	109	117	129
Total		128	409	522	603[3]	599[3]	626	646

[1] Pupils aged 2 to 4 at December/January of academic year.

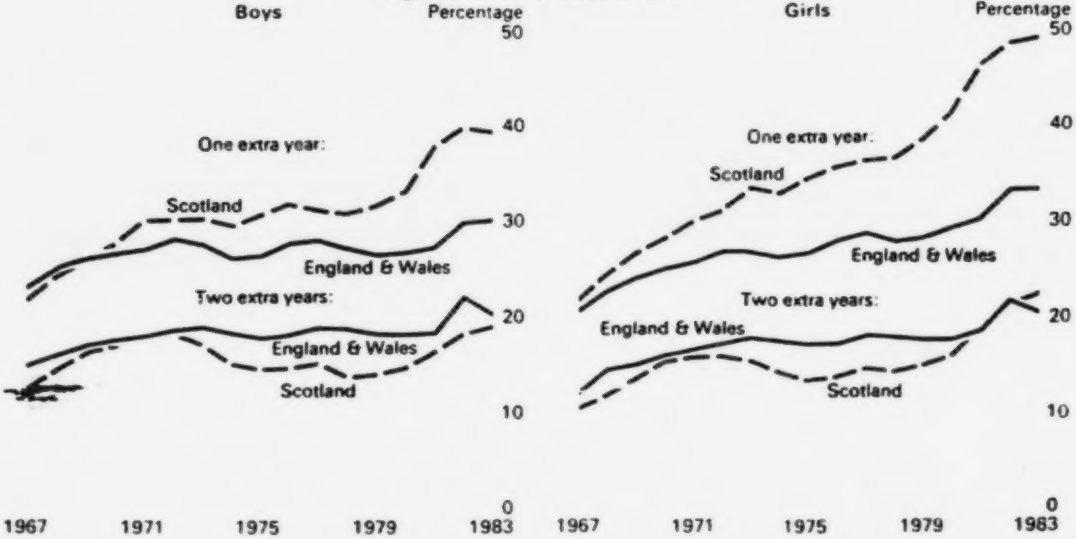
[2] Figures for 1966 and 1971 cover England & Wales at end December 1966 and end March 1972 respectively. From 1976 data are at end March except for the Northern Ireland component which is at end December of the preceding year.

[3] Figure should be treated with caution.

Source: Department of Health and Social Security; Department of Education and Science; Scottish Education Department, Social Work Services Group; Welsh Office; Department of Health and Social Services, Northern Ireland; Northern Ireland Department of Education

Chart 3.5 Pupils staying on at school for at least 1[1] extra year, and at least 2[2] extra years: by sex

England & Wales, and Scotland



[1] To 1st year sixth in England & Wales and S5 in Scotland.

[2] To 2nd year sixth in England & Wales and S6 in Scotland.

Source: Department of Education and Science; Scottish Education Department; Welsh Office

School leavers

Table 3.7 Educational and economic activities of 16 year olds

Great Britain Percentages and thousands

	1975/76			1982/83			1983/84		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Percentage of 16 year olds who were									
In full-time education									
School	*28*	*28*	*28*	*30*	*34*	*32*	*29*	*32*	*31*
Further education	*11*	*15*	*13*	*13*	*20*	*17*	*11*	*18*	*14*
In employment (outside YTS)									
With part-time day study	*19*	*6*	*12*	*10*	*4*	*7*	*8*	*4*	*6*
Other	*32*	*43*	*39*	*10*	*12*	*11*	*10*	*13*	*11*
On YTS/YOP		.	.	*20*	*18*	*19*	*28*	*22*	*25*
Unemployed	*10*	*8*	*9*	*16*	*13*	*14*	*14*	*11*	*13*
Total 16 year olds (= 100%) (thousands)	428	406	834	467	443	909	461	438	899

The activities in January each year of those who had attained the statutory school-leaving age (16 years) by the previous 31 August.

In addition to the activities shown, some 10 per cent of 16 year olds attend evening classes.

Full time and sandwich including higher education but excluding private education outside school.

[4] Public sector part-time day study only. 4 per cent undertook private sector part-time study in 1983/84.

Includes in 1975/76 the unregistered unemployed and those who were neither employed nor seeking work (eg because of domestic responsibilities) and from 1982/83 those who are seeking work but not claiming benefit and those who are neither employed nor seeking work.

Includes those in further education establishments attending Youth Training Scheme/Youth Opportunities Programme courses.

Registered unemployed in 1975/76 and claimant unemployed from 1982/83. (These are Department of Education and Science estimates.)

Source: Department of Education and Science

Table 3.8 Intended destination of school leavers: by sex

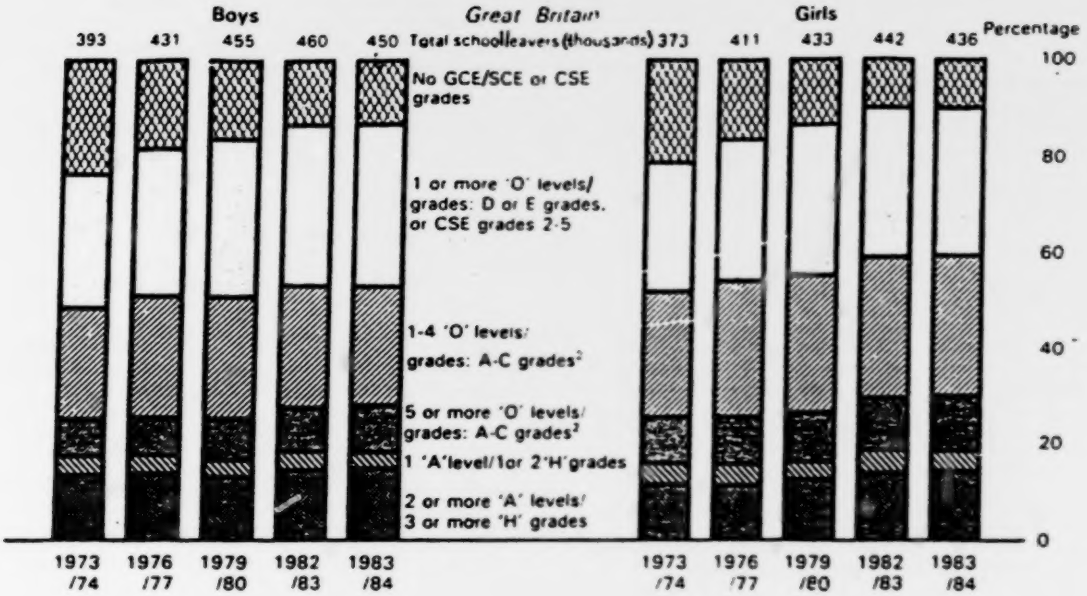
England & Wales Percentages and thousands

	Boys					Girls				
	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84
Leavers intending to enter full-time further or higher education as a percentage of all school leavers – by type of course										
Degree	*9.0*	*8.8*	*9.3*	*8.5*	*8.5*	*5.3*	*5.4*	*6.8*	*6.6*	*6.3*
Teacher training	*1.3*	*0.5*	*0.2*	*0.1*	*0.1*	*5.2*	*2.2*	*0.7*	*0.7*	*0.9*
HND/HNC	*0.7*	*0.4*	*0.5*	*0.4*	*0.6*	*0.3*	*0.3*	*0.3*	*0.3*	*0.4*
OND/ONC	*0.6*	*0.9*	*0.4*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.4*	*0.5*	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*
BTEC	.	.	.	*2.0*	*1.6*	.	.	.	*1.9*	*1.6*
GCE 'A' level	*1.6*	*1.8*	*2.8*	*3.3*	*3.6*	*1.1*	*2.1*	*3.3*	*3.6*	*4.2*
GCE 'O' level	*1.7*	*1.5*	*1.7*	*1.5*	*1.9*	*1.1*	*1.5*	*2.2*	*1.9*	*2.1*
Catering	*4.7*	*0.5*	*0.6*	*0.7*	*0.7*	*10.8*	*1.0*	*1.7*	*1.8*	*1.7*
Nursing		–	–	–	–		*1.6*	*1.9*	*1.8*	*1.8*
Secretarial		–	–	–	–		*4.8*	*5.2*	*4.3*	*3.9*
Other full-time		*4.5*	*6.6*	*6.4*	*6.5*		*6.0*	*9.6*	*8.9*	*9.6*
Total leavers intending to enter full-time further or higher education										
(*percentages*)	*19.5*	*18.9*	*22.2*	*23.2*	*23.8*	*24.1*	*25.4*	*32.0*	*31.8*	*32.5*
(thousands)	61.6	68.7	88.1	95.9	96.1	72.0	87.1	121.8	126.5	127.7
Leavers available for employment[1]										
(*percentages*)	*80.5*	*81.1*	*77.8*	*76.8*	*76.2*	*75.9*	*74.6*	*68.0*	*68.2*	*67.5*
(thousands)	253.8	295.1	308.8	317.2	308.2	226.1	256.4	259.2	271.4	264.9
Total school leavers (= 100%) (thousands)	315.3	363.9	396.9	413.1	404.3	298.1	343.6	381.0	397.9	392.6

[1] Includes leavers going into temporary employment pending entry into full-time further or higher education or whose destination was not known.

Source: Department of Education and Science; Welsh Office

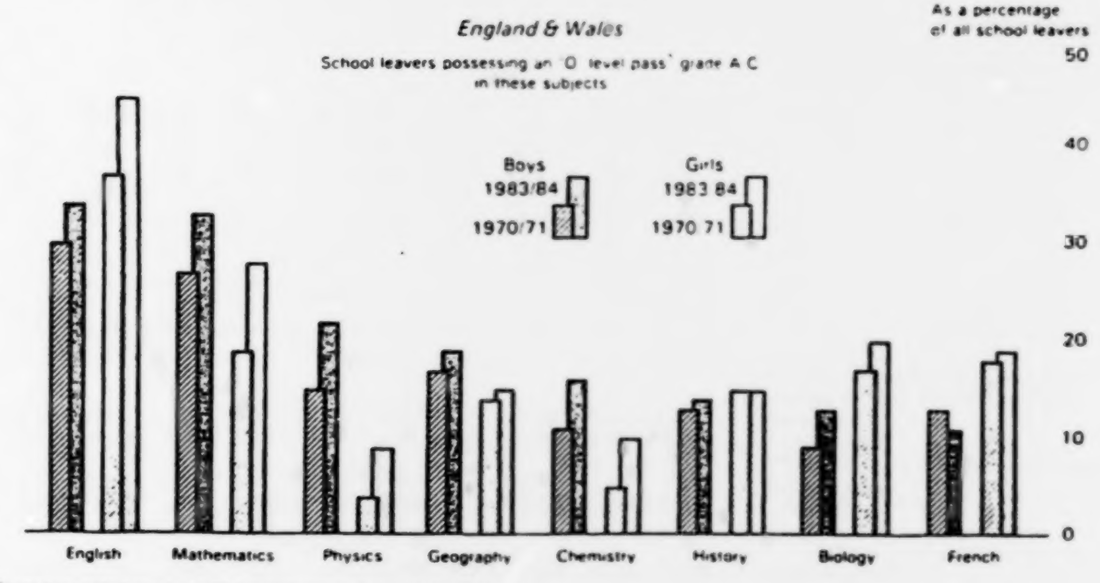
Chart 3.9 School leavers – highest qualification: by sex



See Appendix, Part 3: School-leaving qualifications.
Includes CSE grade 1.

Source: Depar[illegible]t of Education and Science; Scottish Education Department; Welsh Office

Chart 3.10 School leavers – GCE 'O' level grades A-C passes in selected subjects: by sex, 1970/71 and 1983/84



[1] Includes grade 1 results in CSE examinations, but excludes 'O' level passes on 'A' level papers

Source: Department of Education and Science

Table 3.11 Further education[1] – all non-advanced courses: by type of course and sex

United Kingdom

Thousands

	Males					Females				
	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84
Student enrolments in major establishments										
By type of course										
Full-time and sandwich										
From the United Kingdom	. .	. .	140	184	180	. .	. .	191	229	221
From abroad	. .	. .	14	6	6	. .	. .	5	3	2
Total	116	144	154	191	185	95	156	196	231	223
Day release	559	477	400	298	311	198	257	99	84	117
Part-time day			53	89	92			126	169	174
Evening only	332	309	244	259	287	432	511	399	[illegible]	433
By age[1] – 18 or under	467	407[2]	444	412	412	246	258[2]	320	346	363
– 19 or over	541	523	407	425	462	478	666	500	549	584
Total student enrolments	1,007	930	851	837	874	725	924	821	895	947
Student enrolments on courses in local authority adult education centres[3]	519	686	558	556	597	1,108	1,511	1,240	1,227	1,297
Student enrolments on other courses of adult education[4]	153	180	168	193	195	205	254	230	274	284

[1] See Appendix, Part 3: Stages of education

[2] In 1980 measurement by age was changed from 31 December to 31 August

[3] Previously known as Evening Institutes

[4] University Extramural Departments, Workers' Educational Association, Welsh National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association.

Source: Department of Education and Science; Scottish Education Department; Welsh Office; Northern Ireland Department of Education

Table 3.12 Higher education – full-time students: by origin, sex, and age

United Kingdom

Thousands

	Males					Females				
	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84	1970 /71	1975 /76	1980 /81	1982 /83	1983 /84
Full-time students by origin										
From the United Kingdom										
Universities[1] – undergraduate	128.3	130.1	145.1	142.4	138.0	57.0	73.6	96.2	100.0	98.6
– post-graduate	23.9	23.2	20.7	19.3	20.0	8.0	10.2	11.3	10.9	11.4
Public sector higher education	102.0	109.3	111.9	133.4	141.9	113.1	120.1	96.4	115.4	124.0
Total full-time UK students	254.2	262.6	277.7	295.1	299.9	178.2	203.8	203.9	226.3	234.1
From abroad	20.0	38.6	40.7	34.8	34.5	4.4	9.9	12.6	12.0	12.1
Total full-time students	274.2	301.2	318.4	329.9	334.4	182.6	213.7	216.5	238.3	246.2
Full-time students by age										
18 or under	28.7	31.7[3]	50.3	52.4	51.1	30.4	30.5[3]	41.6	45.9	44.9
19-20	99.0	104.6	117.8	127.6	130.5	82.3	90.0	89.7	100.7	106.3
21-24	104.6	108.7	95.6	97.8	98.5	44.5	59.8	53.5	58.5	60.6
25 or over	42.0	56.1	54.5	52.2	54.3	25.3	33.4	31.5	33.1	34.4

[1] See Appendix, Part 3: Stages of education

[2] Origin is on fee paying status except for EC students domiciled outside the United Kingdom who from 1980/81 are charged home rates but are included with students from abroad

[3] In 1980 measurement by age changed from 31 December to 31 August

Source: Department of Education and Science

Table 3.13 Higher education[1] – part-time students: by type of establishment, sex, and age

United Kingdom

Thousands

	Males					Females				
	1970/71	1975/76	1980/81	1982/83	1983/84	1970/71	1975/76	1980/81	1982/83	1983/84
Part-time students by establishment										
Universities	18.1	19.3	22.6	22.6	23.1	5.7	7.0	10.7	12.4	13.2
Open University[2]	14.3	33.6	37.6	40.7	41.6	5.3	22.0	30.1	33.8	34.6
Public sector higher education										
– part-time day courses	69.8	80.2	110.5	112.6	113.1	6.7	15.4	30.8	35.1	38.6
– evening only courses	39.8	35.0	35.1	31.3	32.2	5.0	5.8	15.2	16.2	16.8
Total part-time students	142.0	168.1	205.7	207.2	210.0	22.7	50.2	86.8	97.5	103.2
Part-time students by age										
18 or under	..	..	11.8	8.8	8.3	..	..	3.2	2.8	2.8
19-20	..	..	33.9	35.8	33.8	..	..	7.5	7.8	7.8
21-24	..	..	48.3	48.0	47.3	..	..	16.0	17.6	17.4
25 or over	..	..	111.7	114.6	120.5	..	..	60.1	69.3	75.3

[1] See Appendix, Part 3: Stages of education.

[2] Calendar year beginning in second year shown. Excludes short course students up to 1982/83; in 1983/84 short course students are included apart from 6.0 thousand not separately available by sex.

Source: Department of Education and Science

Table 3.14 Higher education – home students entering full-time and sandwich courses for the first time[1]: by age

Great Britain

Thousands and percentages

	1970/71	1975/76	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	1983/84
New students (thousands)						
Aged under 21	102.6	107.4	113.5	120.4	125.0	123.7
Aged 21 or over	27.3	31.4	33.7	36.5	36.5	37.3
Total	129.9	138.8	147.2	156.9	161.4	161.0
New students aged 21 or over as a percentage of all new students	*21.0*	*22.6*	*22.9*	*23.3*	*22.6*	*23.2*
New students aged under 21 as a percentage of the average of 18 and 19 year old populations						
– overall	*13.7*	*13.6*	*12.7*	*13.5*	*13.5*	*13.3*
– adjusted[2]	*11.8*	*12.3*	*12.7*	.	.	.

[1] See Appendix, Part 3: Stages of education.

[2] Excludes entrants to initial teacher training courses with less than 2 GCE 'A' level passes, of whom there have been virtually none aged under 21 since 1980/81.

Source: Department of Education and Science

THE ECONOMY AND EMPLOYMENT

Industrial Output and Employment (Indices: 1980 = 100)

	Output		Employment[a]	
	Index 1984	Index 1985	Index 1984	Index 1985
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	121.3	117.1	94.2	93.6
Production industries	103.2	108.1	80.6	80.2
of which:				
Energy and water supply	110.1	120.1	87.3	84.6
Manufactoring	100.7	103.8	79.9	79.7
Construction	98.6	99.8	79.0	77.5
Services	109.3	113.4	100.3	102.3
of which.				
Distribution, hotels, catering and repairs	108.2	112.0	100.5	103.6
Communications	115.4	123.2	98.2	98.9
Financial and business services	133.0	145.0	112.2	116.1
Whole economy	106.7	110.7	92.5	93.4

Sources: United Kingdom National Accounts 1986 Edition and Monthly Digest of Statistics

[a] Excluding self employment

Gross Fixed Capital Formation [Investment] by Sector

	Investment	
	£ million 1985 (at 1980 prices)	Index 1983
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	787	77.3
Oil and gas extraction	2,351	98.0
Other energy and water supply	2,977	90.5
Manufacturing	5,852	90.3
Construction	568	121.6
Distribution, hotels, catering and repairs	4,109	126.9
Transport and communications	3,848	99.2
Finance and business services		
Leased assets	3,808	176.5
Other assets	4,891	138.4
Other services	6,335	127.6
Dwellings	8,475	97.7
Transfer costs of land and buildings	2,309	137.9
Total investment	46,310	110.9

Source: United Kingdom National Accounts 1984 Edition

Manpower in Britain 1973-85

Thousands

Year (Sept)	Employees in employment[a]	Self-employed	Unemployed[b]	Armed forces	Total working population
1973	22,753	2,023	531	358	25,665
1974	22,935	1,996	622	347	25,900
1975	22,710	1,993	845	336	25,877
1976	22,543	1,949	1,185	336	26,094
1977	22,619	1,904	1,251	327	26,209
1978	22,777	1,904	1,235	318	26,342
1979	23,157	1,925	1,132	314	26,631
1980	22,972	2,033	1,359	323	27,841
1981	21,870	2,137[c]	2,275	334	27,737
1982	21,400	2,169[c]	2,606	324	26,682
1983	21,059	2,240[c]	2,887	322	26,605
1984	21,242	2,515	2,983	326	27,113
1985	21,467	2,623	3,114	326	27,594

Source. Department of Employment and Northern Ireland Department of Economic Development

[a] Part-time workers are counted as full units
[b] Excluding adult students. Figures are adjusted for discontinuaties and seasonal factors and are on the basis of calculation in use from March 1986, excluding school-leavers
[c] Not seasonally adjusted and including school-leavers

Employees in Employment

Industry or service (1980 Standard Industrial Classification)	Thousands (as at June)				per cent
	1977	1981	1984	1985	(1985)
Primary Sector	**1,106**	**1,061**	**974**	**952**	**4.4**
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	388	352	340	338	1.6
Energy and water supply	718	709	634	613	2.9
Manufacturing[a]	**7,328**	**6,220**	**5,542**	**5,533**	**25.8**
Construction	**1,215**	**1,138**	**989**	**970**	**4.5**
Services	**12,969**	**13,450**	**13,738**	**14,012**	**65.3**
Wholesale distribution and repairs	1,058	1,127	1,179	1,209	5.6
Retail distribution	2,087	2,090	2,143	2,203	10.3
Hotels and catering	877	949	1,015	1,058	4.9
Transport	1,030	985	882	872	4.0
Postal services and communications	419	438	429	432	2.0
Banking, finance and insurance	1,519	1,740	1,887	1,972	9.2
Public administration	1,989	1,904	1,869	1,880	8.8
Education	1,602	1,602	1,590	1,600	7.5
Health	1,184	1,289	1,349	1,368	6.4
Other services	1,204	1,327	1,393	1,418	6.6
Total	**22,617**	**21,870**	**21,242**	**21,467**	**100.0**

Sources: Department of Employment and Northern Ireland Department of Economic Development.

[a] In June 1985 employment in the main sectors of manufacturing industry included 848,000 in office machinery, electrical engineering and instruments; 792,000 in mechanical engineering; 626,000 in food, drink and tobacco; 546,000 in textiles, leather, footwear and clothing; 498,000 in paper products, printing and publishing; 452,000 in timber, wooden furniture, rubber and plastics; 348,000 in chemicals and man-made fibres; and 288,000 in motor vehicles and parts.

Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding: for 1977 the difference also reflects the inclusion in the total of some employees whose industrial classification could not be ascertained.

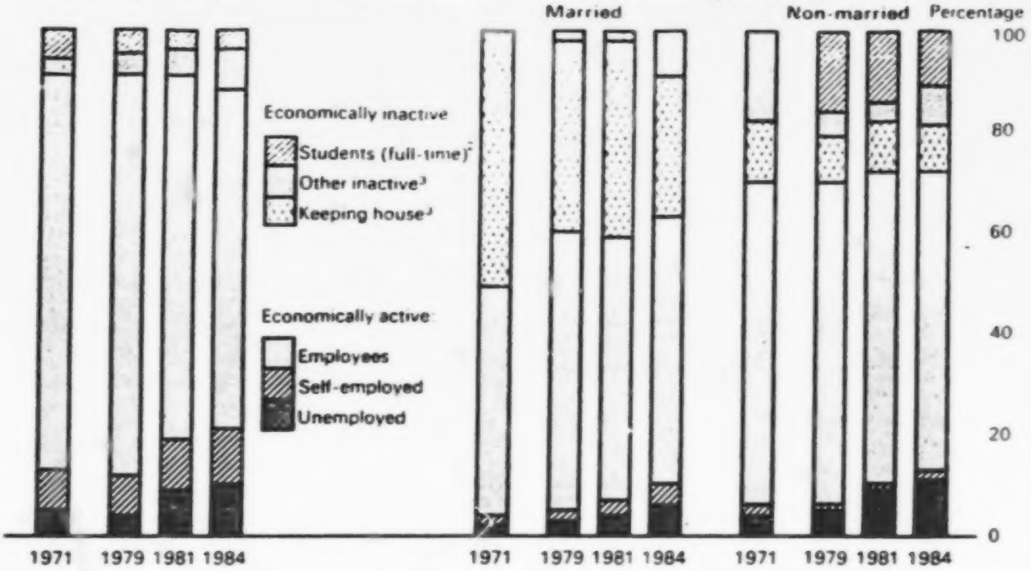
Manufacturing: Size Distribution of Establishments

Number of employees	Number of establishments	% of total establishments	% of total employment
Under 20	80,930	74.7	10.0
20 to 499	25,465	23.5	40.1
500 to 1,499	1,445	1.3	20.3
1,500 or more	436	0.4	29.6

Source: Report on the Census of Production 1981

Chart 4.1 Population of working age: by economic status

Males aged 16–64[1] *Great Britain* Females aged 16–59[1]



[1] Figures for 1971 relate to persons aged 15-59/64 (the school-leaving age was raised in 1972).

[2] Those who neither have nor are seeking paid work, *plus* those who are seeking work but prevented from starting work by the need to complete their education.

[3] The 1971 Population Census did not separately identify women who were permanently unable to work, retired, and others. These women have therefore been included in the category 'Keeping house' in 1971.

Source: Population Census 1971, *Office of Population Censuses and Surveys;* Labour Force Surveys, *Department of Employment*

Table 4.3 Civilian labour force economic activity rates and projections: by age and sex

Great Britain Percentages

	16-19	20-24	25-44	45-54/59[2]	55-59/ 60-64[3]	60/65+[4]	All aged 16 or over
Males							
1971	*69.4*	*87.7*	*95.4*	*94.8*	*82.9*	*19.2*	*80.5*
1976	*70.5*	*85.9*	*95.7*	*94.9*	*80.4*	*14.5*	*78.9*
1979	*73.0*	*86.7*	*95.7*	*93.8*	*73.0*	*10.3*	*77.5*
1981	*72.4*	*85.1*	*95.7*	*93.0*	*69.3*	*10.3*	*76.5*
1983	*69.6*	*84.1*	*94.5*	*90.1*	*59.2*	*8.1*	*74.2*
1984	*72.9*	*84.6*	*94.4*	*89.1*	*56.7*	*8.2*	*74.2*
Projections[5]							
1986	*72.8*	*85.3*	*94.6*	*89.5*	*59.2*	*7.0*	*74.3*
1991	*71.6*	*84.9*	*94.9*	*90.4*	*59.2*	*5.2*	*74.4*
Females							
1971	*65.0*	*60.2*	*52.4*	*62.0*	*50.9*	*12.4*	*43.9*
1976	*68.2*	*64.8*	*60.0*	*66.5*	*54.3*	*10.3*	*46.8*
1979	*72.0*	*67.7*	*61.7*	*67.0*	*53.8*	*7.4*	*47.4*
1981	*70.4*	*68.8*	*61.7*	*68.0*	*53.4*	*8.3*	*47.6*
1983	*66.7*	*68.2*	*62.2*	*68.0*	*50.5*	*7.5*	*47.0*
1984	*68.7*	*69.0*	*65.1*	*69.1*	*51.1*	*7.6*	*48.4*
Projections[5]							
1986	*69.9*	*70.3*	*66.3*	*70.0*	*51.9*	*7.3*	*49.1*
1991	*68.7*	*70.4*	*67.9*	*71.7*	*53.6*	*7.0*	*50.0*

[1] The percentage of the home population, or any sub-group of the population, who are in the civilian labour force. See Table 4.2, footnote 1.

[2] 45-54 for females, 45-59 for males.

[3] 56-59 for females, 60-64 for males.

[4] 60 or over for females, 65 or over for males.

[5] 1984-based.

Source: Department of Employment

Table 4.2 Civilian labour force: estimates and projections

Great Britain Millions

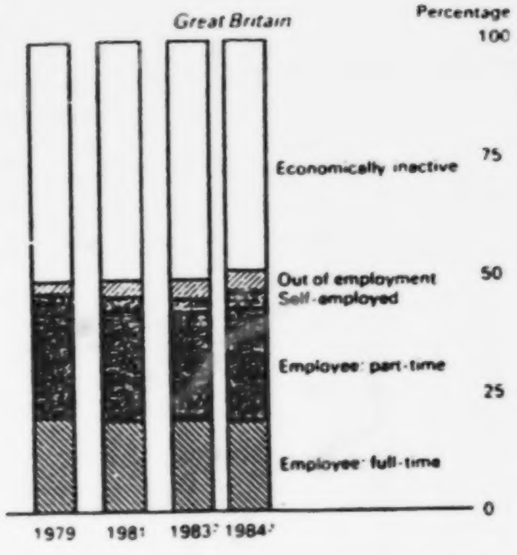
	Males	Females	Total
Estimates			
1971	15.6	9.3	24.9
1976	15.6	10.1	25.7
1979	15.6	10.4	26.0
1981	15.6	10.6	26.2
1983	15.3	10.6	25.9
1984	15.5	10.9	26.4
Projections[1]			
1986	15.6	11.2	26.8
1991	15.8	11.5	27.2

The civilian labour force, which excludes HM Forces, includes those students who are economically active. Estimates for 1971 are based on the Census of Population and those for 1976-1984 are based on Labour Force Survey results adjusted to a mid-year basis and for the inclusion of non-private households. All figures relate to persons aged 16 or over. See Appendix, Part 4: Labour force.

[1] 1984-based

Source: Department of Employment

women

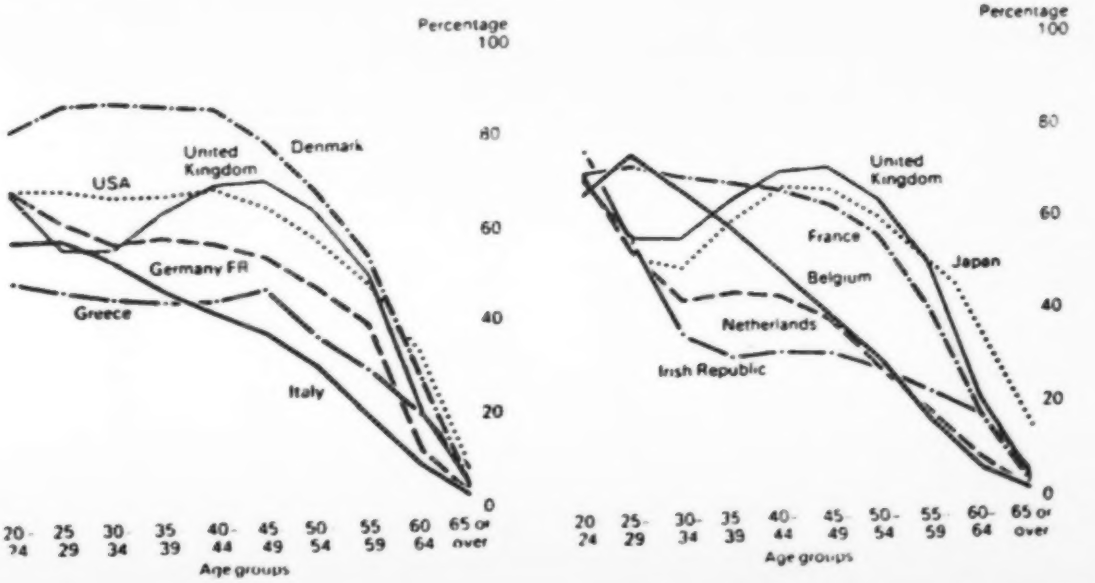


[1] Some women did not give information on hours and status. They have been allocated to categories in proportion to those who did supply information.

[2] Distribution excludes a small number of married women on government employment schemes who did not classify themselves to any of the categories shown in the chart.

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Department of Employment

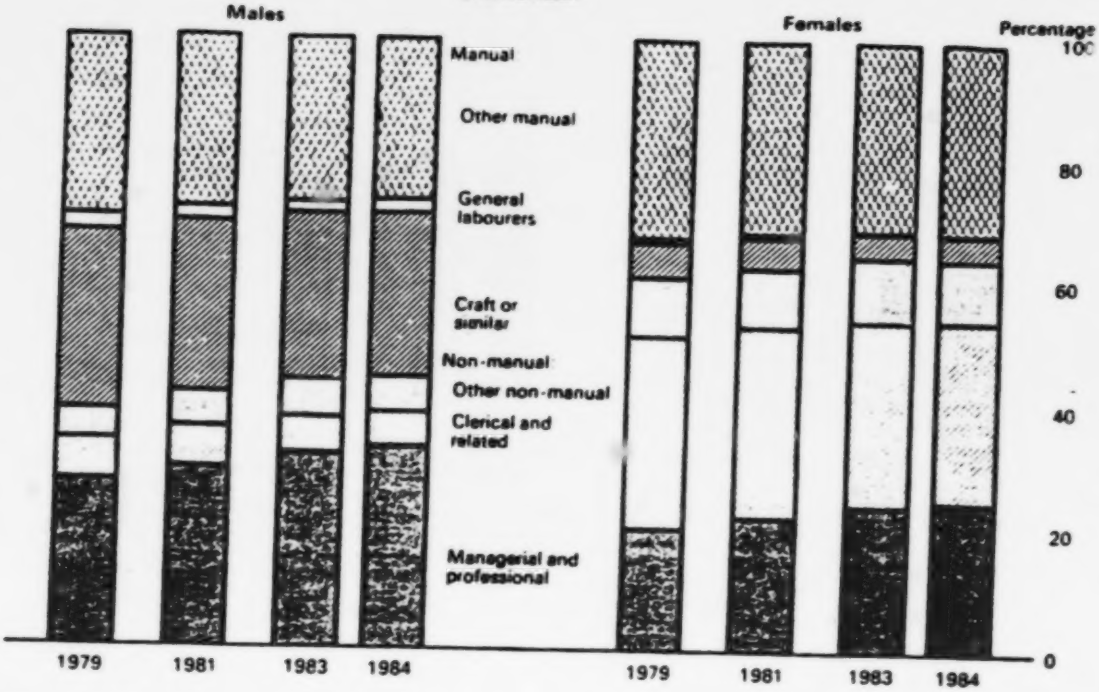
Chart 4.5 Female economic activity rates: by age, international comparison, 1983



Source: Labour Force Survey, 1983, Department of Employment; Japanese Labour Force Survey; Employment and Earnings, US Bureau

Chart 4.11 People in employment: by occupation and sex[1]

Great Britain



[1] Excludes occupation inadequately described or not stated.

Source: Labour Force Surveys, *Department of Employment*

Table 4.15 Average weekly hours of full-time employees[1], April 1984

Great Britain

	Males			Females		
	Manual	Non-manual	All employees	Manual	Non-manual	All employees
Percentage of each group with total weekly hours in the range:						
34 or under	*0.4*	*5.6*	*2.6*	*8.8*	*11.1*	*10.6*
Over 34 but not over 36	*1.6*	*18.2*	*9.0*	*8.8*	*23.7*	*20.2*
Over 36 but not over 40	*45.1*	*57.5*	*50.5*	*62.9*	*59.4*	*60.2*
Over 40 but not over 44	*15.7*	*9.0*	*12.8*	*9.4*	*3.9*	*5.2*
Over 44 but not over 48	*14.7*	*4.7*	*10.3*	*6.3*	*1.1*	*2.3*
Over 48 but not over 50	*5.0*	*1.3*	*3.4*	*1.0*	*0.2*	*0.4*
Over 50	*17.5*	*3.7*	*11.4*	*2.8*	*0.6*	*1.1*
Sample size (= 100%) (thousands)	41	32	74	8	26	34
Average weekly hours						
Normal basic hours	39.1	37.1	38.2	38.1	36.1	36.6
Overtime hours	5.1	1.4	3.5	1.3	0.4	0.6
Total weekly hours	44.3	38.5	41.7	39.4	36.5	37.2

[1] Hours of full-time employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence. Total weekly hours are the sum of normal basic hours and paid overtime hours.

Source: New Earnings Survey, 1984, *Department of Employment*

Table 4.22 Unemployed claimants: by sex, age, and duration, April 1985

United Kingdom — Percentages and thousands

	Duration of unemployment (weeks)						
	Up to 2	Over 2, up to 8	Over 8, up to 26	Over 26, up to 52	Over 52, up to 104	Over 104	Total (= 100%) (thousands)
Males aged:							
16-19	*6.1*	*13.6*	*29.0*	*29.2*	*15.7*	*6.4*	300.7
20-24	*5.1*	*11.1*	*23.7*	*21.2*	*17.0*	*21.9*	452.4
25-34	*4.4*	*9.7*	*20.8*	*17.6*	*17.5*	*30.0*	537.0
35-49	*4.1*	*8.6*	*18.5*	*15.4*	*17.1*	*36.2*	523.0
50-59	*3.4*	*6.5*	*14.4*	*15.3*	*19.5*	*41.0*	380.1
60 or over	*7.2*	*11.6*	*26.8*	*31.3*	*11.7*	*11.2*	77.6
All males aged 16 or over	*4.6*	*9.8*	*21.1*	*19.4*	*17.2*	*27.9*	2,270.7
Females aged:							
16-19	*6.4*	*13.4*	*29.5*	*30.0*	*15.0*	*5.7*	211.3
20-24	*6.2*	*12.9*	*27.8*	*23.9*	*13.8*	*15.5*	248.9
25-34	*6.6*	*13.7*	*29.0*	*27.1*	*13.7*	*10.0*	240.1
35-49	*6.8*	*12.5*	*23.8*	*21.6*	*17.0*	*18.4*	171.6
50 or over	*3.5*	*6.5*	*14.5*	*17.0*	*19.6*	*38.9*	130.0
All females aged 16 or over	*6.1*	*12.3*	*26.0*	*24.7*	*15.3*	*15.6*	1,001.8

Source: Department of Employment

Table 5.2 Gross weekly earnings of full-time employees : by sex

Great Brit

£s and percentages

	Males					Females				
	1970	1981	1983	1983	1984	1970	1981	1983	1983	1984
Manual employees										
Mean (£s)	26.2	119.0	140.1	141.6	152.7	13.4	74.5	87.9	88.1	93.5
Median (£s)	25.2	111.9	131.9	133.1	143.3	12.8	71.4	84.1	84.3	88.6
As percentage of median										
Highest decile	*150*	*152*	*153*	*152*	*154*	*145*	*144*	*145*	*145*	*148*
Lowest decile	*65*	*67*	*66*	*67*	*66*	*69*	*70*	*69*	*69*	*70*
Non-manual employees										
Mean (£s)	34.7	159.4	190.7	191.8	209.0	17.8	96.7	115.1	116.1	124.3
Median (£s)	30.7	145.6	173.1	173.9	188.8	15.9	87.0	104.7	105.6	113.5
As percentage of median										
Highest decile	*179*	*169*	*171*	*171*	*172*	*174*	*173*	*165*	*164*	*163*
Lowest decile	*58*	*59*	*58*	*59*	*58*	*64*	*67*	*66*	*66*	*66*
All employees										
Mean (£s)	29.3	137.0	163.3	164.7	178.8	16.3	91.4	108.8	109.5	117.2
Median (£s)	26.7	123.5	146.9	148.1	160.6	14.6	82.2	98.8	99.5	106.8
As percentage of median										
Highest decile	*163*	*169*	*171*	*170*	*171*	*170*	*173*	*168*	*167*	*166*
Lowest decile	*63*	*64*	*62*	*63*	*62*	*66*	*68*	*66*	*66*	*66*

---

[1] Figures relate to April each year and to full-time employees whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

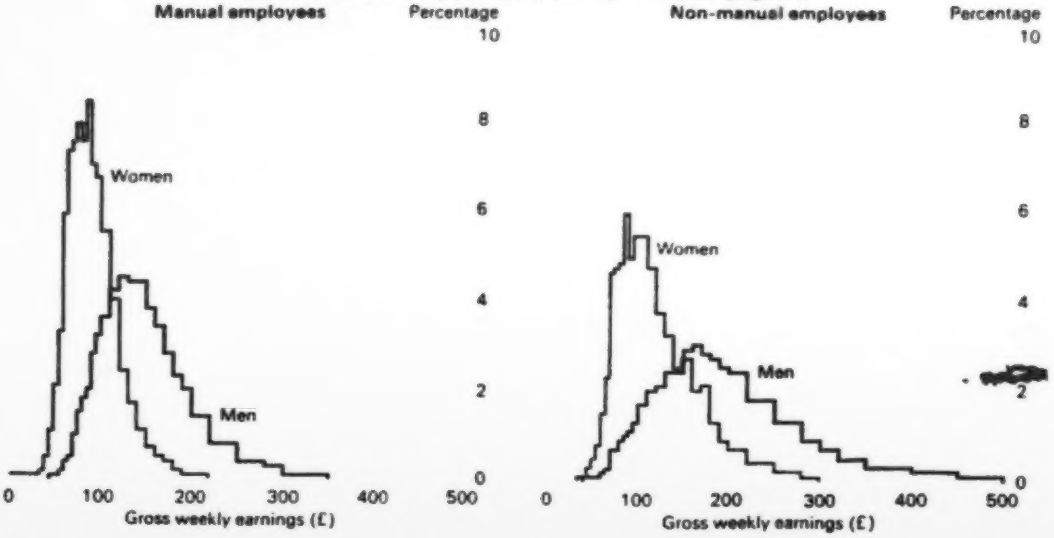
[2] Series adjusted in 1983 from a base of employees aged 18 years or over to a base of employees on adult rates.

Source New Earnings Survey, *Department of Employment*

Chart 5.3 Distribution of gross weekly earnings[1], April 1984

Great Britain

Estimated percentage with gross weekly earnings in £5 earnings groups



[1] Of full-time employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Source New Earnings Survey, *Department of Employme*

Table 5.4 Overtime: pay and hours worked by full-time manual employees

Great Britain

	All manual employees					Manual employees receiving overtime pay			
	Average gross weekly earnings (£s)	Average weekly overtime pay (£s)	Overtime pay as percentage of average gross earnings	Average weekly overtime hours	Percentage receiving overtime pay	Average gross weekly earnings (£s)	Average weekly overtime pay (£s)	Overtime pay as percentage of average gross earnings	Average weekly overtime hours[2]
Males									
1974	42.8	6.8	*16*	6.4	*60*	46.2	11.3	*24*	10.5
1976	63.9	8.4	*13*	5.2	*54*	70.6	15.7	*22*	9.6
1981	119.0	14.1	*12*	4.4	*46*	135.3	30.8	*23*	9.4
1983	140.1	17.3	*12*	4.6	*49*	157.8	35.4	*23*	9.2
[3] 1983	141.6	17.6	*12*	4.6	*49*	..	..	..	..
1984	152.7	21.1	*14*	5.1	*53*	171.0	40.2	*24*	9.6
Females									
1974	23.6	0.9	*4*	1.2	*20*	28.1	4.6	*16*	5.9
1976	39.4	1.0	*3*	0.8	*14*	48.3	7.0	*15*	5.6
1981	74.5	2.4	*3*	1.0	*15*	93.8	16.0	*17*	6.3
1983	87.9	3.4	*4*	1.2	*19*	108.2	18.0	*17*	6.0
[3] 1983	88.1	3.5	*4*	1.2	*19*	..	..	..	..
1984	93.5	4.1	*4*	1.3	*21*	115.0	19.7	*17*	6.2

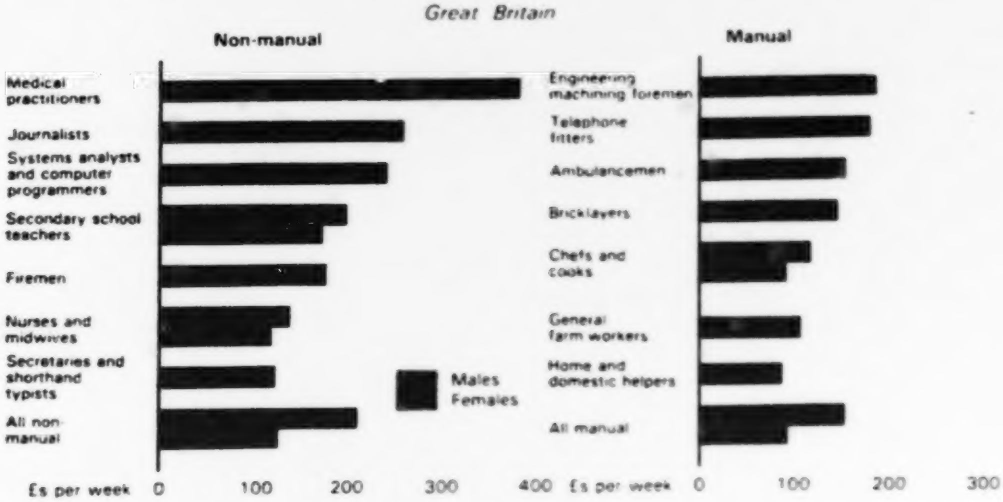
[1] Figures relate to April each year and to full-time employees (more than 30 normal basic hours per week) whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

[2] Actual hours of overtime worked for which overtime earnings were paid.

[3] Series adjusted in 1983 from a base of employees aged 18 years or over to a base of employees on adult rates.

Source: New Earnings Survey, *Department of Employment*

Chart 5.5 Average gross weekly earnings of full-time employees in selected occupation groups, April 1984: by sex



[1] Includes overtime, shift premiums, bonus, and other payments. Recent pay awards not incorporated in earnings for the April survey pay-period will not be covered.

[2] Employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay period was not affected by absence.

Source: New Earnings Survey, *Department of Employment*

Table 5.9 Social security benefits for the unemployed

Great Britain — Percentages and thousands

	1961	1971	1976	1981	1982	1983	1984
Unemployed male claimants receiving *(percentages)*:							
Unemployment benefit only	*47.2*	*40.9*	*30.0*	*28.2*	*21.3*	*19.8*	*20.8*
Unemployment and supplementary benefits	*9.4*	*13.6*	*10.9*	*11.4*	*11.0*	*9.5*	*9.3*
Supplementary benefit only	*21.9*	*27.1*	*42.4*	*46.0*	*52.4*	*60.1*	*60.1*
No benefit	*21.6*	*18.4*	*16.6*	*14.4*	*15.3*	*10.7*	*9.7*
Total unemployed male claimants (= 100%) (thousands)	283	721	1,076	1,994	2,10[illegible]	2,030	2,117
Unemployed female claimants receiving *(percentages)*:							
Unemployment benefit only	*39.7*	*41.0*	*29.1*	*38.9*	*34.5*	*33.1*	*35.1*
Unemployment and supplementary benefits	*2.5*	*6.7*	*3.9*	*3.8*	*4.0*	*3.4*	*3.0*
Supplementary benefit only	*12.2*	*20.5*	*44.6*	*37.4*	*42.7*	*44.9*	*44.1*
No benefit	*45.5*	*31.8*	*22.4*	*20.0*	*18.8*	*18.5*	*17.9*
Total unemployed female claimants (= 100%) (thousands)	101	138	380	709	770	855	882

At November each year except for 1976 when figures relate to August, 1981 when figures for February 1982 are quoted, and 1984 when figures relate to February.

[2] Prior to 1981 count of registered unemployed; for 1981 count of registered unemployed claimants; from 1982 onwards count of unemployed claimants. See Appendix, Part 5: Unemployed claimants.

Source: *Department of Health and Social Security*

Table 7.1 Expectation of life: from birth and from specific ages

United Kingdom

Years

		Males						Females					
		1901	1931	1951	1961	1971	1981	1901	1931	1951	1961	1971	1981
Expectation of life													
From birth		48.0	58.4	66.2	67.9	63.8	69.8	51.6	62.4	71.2	73.8	75.0	76.2
From age	1 year	55.0	62.1	67.5	68.6	69.2	69.6	57.4	65.1	72.1	74.2	75.2	76.1
	10 years	51.4	55.6	59.1	60.0	60.5	60.8	53.9	58.6	63.6	65.6	66.5	67.2
	15 years	46.9	51.1	54.3	55.1	55.6	55.9	49.5	54.0	58.7	60.6	61.6	62.3
	20 years	42.7	46.7	49.5	50.4	50.9	51.2	45.2	49.6	53.9	55.7	56.7	57.4
	30 years	34.6	38.1	40.2	40.9	41.3	41.6	36.9	41.0	44.4	46.0	47.0	47.6
	40 years	26.8	29.5	30.9	31.5	31.9	32.0	29.1	32.4	35.1	36.5	37.3	38.0
	45 years	23.2	25.5	26.4	26.9	27.3	27.5	25.3	28.2	30.6	31.9	32.7	33.3
	50 years	19.7	21.6	22.2	22.6	23.0	23.1	21.6	24.1	26.2	27.4	28.3	29.0
	60 years	13.4	14.4	14.8	15.0	15.3	15.6	14.9	16.4	17.9	19.0	19.8	20.6
	65 years	10.8	11.3	11.7	11.9	12.1	12.4	11.9	13.0	14.2	15.1	16.0	16.7
	70 years	8.4	8.6	9.0	9.3	9.5	9.5	9.2	10.0	10.9	11.7	12.5	13.2
	75 years	6.4	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.4	7.1	7.4	8.0	8.7	9.4	10.0
	80 years	4.9	4.8	4.8	5.2	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.8	6.3	6.9	7.3

Further number of years which a person could expect to live
See Appendix, Part 7. Expectation of life

Source: Government Actuary's Department

Table 7.4 Survivors beyond age 65 – health and independence: by sex, 1981-1983

England & Wales

Numbers

	Males				Females			
		In private households				In private households		
	In institutions	Long standing illness	Otherwise healthy and independent	Total survivors	In institutions	Long standing illness	Otherwise healthy and independent	Total survivors
Survivors at age:								
65	0.5	57.5	42.0	100.0	0.4	58.6	41.0	100.0
70	1.5	48.6	33.4	83.5	1.6	53.1	36.5	91.2
75	1.9	34.3	26.2	62.4	3.2	43.0	32.1	78.3
80	2.0	20.9	16.6	39.5	4.5	32.4	23.6	60.5
85	1.8	10.1	7.6	19.5	5.8	17.3	15.3	38.4
90	1.3	3.8	2.2	7.3	4.7	7.4	6.9	19.0
95	0.9	0.6	0.7	2.2	3.1	2.3	1.8	7.2

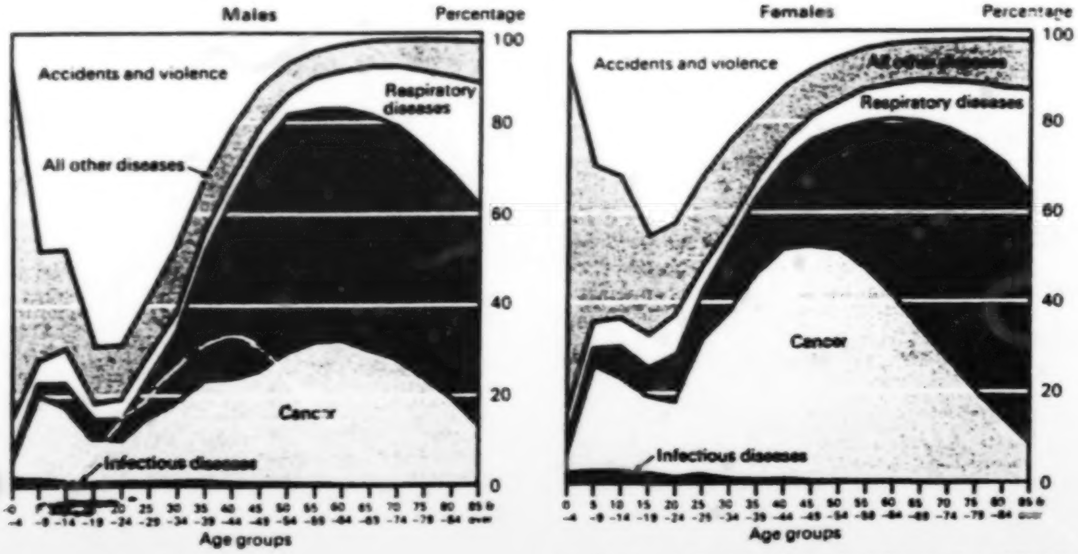
Based on initial populations of 100 men and 100 women at age 65
For details of the sources of the data, see Appendix, Part 7

Expectation of life, health, and independence of the elderly

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

Chart 7.6 Selected causes of death: by sex and age, 1983

United Kingdom



[1]Includes heart attacks and strokes.

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; General Register Office (Scotland); General Register Office (Northern Ireland)

Table 7.9 Consultations with general practitioners (NHS only): by age and sex, 1983

Great Britain Percentages and numbers

	Age						All ages
	0-4	5-15	16-44	45-64	65-74	75 or over	
General practitioner (GP) consultations							
Percentage of population consulting a GP in the 14 days before interview							
Males	*21*	*10*	*8*	*12*	*18*	*20*	*12*
Females	*20*	*9*	*17*	*15*	*18*	*21*	*16*
Average number of GP consultations per person per year							
Males	6.9	2.9	2.3	3.8	5.4	6.6	3.5
Females	6.2	2.8	5.2	4.6	5.9	6.6	4.9
Sample size (= 100%)(numbers)							
Males	900	2,258	5,046	2,800	1,060	533	12,597
Females	916	2,067	5,209	3,037	1,419	952	13,600
Ratio of surgery to home consultations							
Males	5.4	7.1	24.2	8.6	3.2	1.2	6.1
Females	4.8	13.4	14.7	5.6	2.5	0.8	5.0

See Appendix, Part 7: General Household Survey

Source: General Household Survey, 1983

Table 7.10 Dental attendance pattern and treatment at last visit: by sex and age, 1983[1]

Great Britain Percentages and numbers

[redacted]	Males aged			All males aged 16 or over	Females aged			All females aged 16 or over
	16-44	45-64	65 or over		16-44	45-64	65 or over	
Attendance pattern *(percentages)*								
Regular check-up	*41*	*41*	*29*	*40*	*58*	*55*	*37*	*56*
Occasional check-up	*15*	*10*	*9*	*13*	*13*	*10*	*10*	*12*
Only with trouble[2]	*45*	*49*	*63*	*47*	*29*	*34*	*53*	*32*
Sample size (= 100%)(numbers)	4,860	1,977	540	7,377	4,958	1,878	584	7,420
Treatment at last visit[3] *(percentages)*								
X-rays taken	*29*	*19*	*17*	*25*	*28*	*20*	*12*	*25*
Teeth filled	*53*	*43*	*32*	*49*	*51*	*43*	*37*	*48*
Teeth extracted	*25*	*32*	*39*	*27*	*16*	*22*	*29*	*19*
Teeth scaled and polished	*54*	*56*	*49*	*54*	*55*	*61*	*50*	*56*
Sample size (= 100%)(numbers)	3,998	1,495	366	5,859	4,392	1,597	418	6,407

[1] Persons aged 16 or over with some natural teeth.

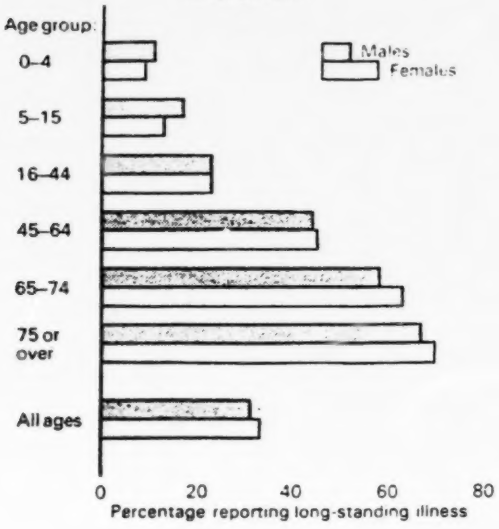
[2] Includes all persons who had not been to the dentist in the 10 years before the interview and all those who had never been to the dentist.

[3] Persons who had been to the dentist in the last 10 years only, excluding those currently receiving treatment.

Source: General Household Survey, 1983

Chart 7.8 Long-standing illness: by age and sex, 1983

Great Britain



Source: General Household Survey, 1983

Table 7.47 National Health Service: annual costs per person[1] by age and sex, 1983

Great Britain £ per person

	Males	Females
Age		
Under 1	[illegible]	[illegible]
1 - 4	208	183
5 - 15	130	117
16 - 24	134	130
25 - 44	148	153
45 - 64	226	215
65 - 74	477	434
75 or over	904	1,109
All ages	224	260

[1] Excludes maternity, obstetrics (in-patients and out-patients, and midwifery), administration, and capital costs.

Source: Central Statistical Office

Table 7.27 Cervical cytology: examinations, positive cases detected, and deaths from cervical cancer

Great Britain

	Smears examined (thousands)	Detection rate[2]	Deaths from cervical cancer	
			Numbers	Rates[3]
1971	2,205	. .	2,551	91
1976	2,803	5.1	2,420	86
1980	3,211	6.6	2,255	80
1981	3,293	6.9	2,218	79
1982	3,241	7.4	2,140	76
1983	3,515	7.5	2,172	77

[1] Estimated from a 20 per cent sample of negative smears taken during January and July each year.

[2] Positive cases detected per 1,000 smears examined.

[3] Deaths per 1 million females.

Source: Department of Health and Social Security, Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, Scottish Health Service, Common Services Agency, General Register Office (Scotland), Welsh Office

Table 7.33 Maternity services

Great Britain

	1961	1971	1976	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
NHS hospitals in-patient maternity service								
Average number of beds occupied daily(thousands)	18	19	16	15	14	14	13	. .
Average length of stay (days)	9.3	7.0	6.5	5.7	5.6	5.3	5.1	. .
Other maternity services (thousands)								
Ante-natal clinics								
NHS hospitals—new out-patients	470	623[2]	610	720	704	705	703	. .
Post-natal clinics								
NHS hospitals—new out-patients	201[2]	180	135	124	112	99	97	. .
Ante-natal mothercraft and relaxation classes - women attending	. .	150	131	174[1]	189[1]	185[1]	192	212[1]
Domiciliary midwifery care—cases of early discharge from hospital[1]	129	449	480	624	608	610	603	614
Live births (thousands)								
In hospital	616	781	634	716	696	684	687	695
Elsewhere	296	89	16	9	8	8	7	7
Percentage in hospital	*67.5*	*89.8*	*97.6*	*98.7*	*98.9*	*98.9*	*99.0*	*99.0*
Still births (thousands)								
In hospital	15.0	10.0	6.1	5.1	4.5	4.2	3.9	3.9
Elsewhere	2.8	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Percentage in hospital	*84.5*	*94.8*	*96.9*	*97.0*	*97.4*	*97.5*	*97.3*	*97.4*

[1] England & Wales only.

[2] Wales ante-natal and post-natal data are grouped together and shown under ante-natal.

Source: Department of Health and Social Security, Scottish Health Service, Common Services Agency, Welsh Office, Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, General Register Office (Scotland)

Table 7.11 Adult cigarette smoking: by sex and socio-economic group

Great Britain — Percentages and numbers

	Socio-economic group							
	Professional	Employers and managers	Intermediate and junior non-manual	Skilled manual and own account non-professional	Semi-skilled manual and personal service	Unskilled manual	All persons	Average weekly cigarette consumption per smoker
Percentage smoking cigarettes								
Males								
1972	*33*	*44*	*45*	*57*	*57*	*64*	*52*	120
1976	*25*	*38*	*40*	*51*	*53*	*58*	*46*	129
1980	*21*	*35*	*35*	*48*	*49*	*57*	*42*	124
1982	*20*	*29*	*30*	*42*	*47*	*49*	*38*	121
1984	*17*	*29*	*30*	*40*	*45*	*49*	*36*	115
1984 Sample size (numbers)	448	1,413	1,384	3,063	1,350	478	8,417	
Females								
1972	*33*	*38*	*38*	*47*	*42*	*42*	*42*	87
1976	*28*	*35*	*36*	*42*	*41*	*38*	*38*	101
1980	*21*	*33*	*34*	*43*	*39*	*41*	*37*	102
1982	*21*	*29*	*30*	*39*	*36*	*41*	*33*	98
1984	*15*	*29*	*28*	*37*	*37*	*36*	*32*	96
1984 Sample size (numbers)	384	1,487	2,436	2,585	1,864	518	9,788	

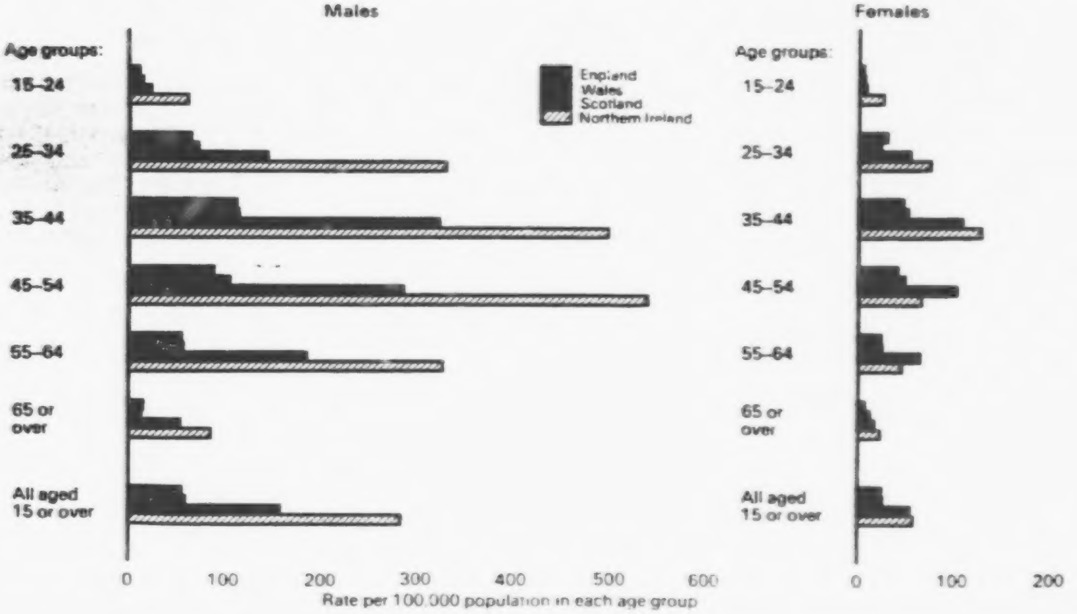
[1] Persons aged 15 or over in 1972, but 16 or over in later years

[2] See Appendix, Part 7: General Household Survey

[3] Includes members of the armed forces, people in inadequately described occupations, and all people who have never worked

Source: General Household Survey

Chart 7.17 Alcohol misuse—admissions[1] to mental illness hospitals and units: by sex and age, 1983



[1] All admissions with a main diagnosis of alcoholic psychosis, alcoholic dependence syndrome, or non-dependent abuse of alcohol

Source: Department of Health and Social Security; Scottish Health Service, Common Services Agency; Welsh Office; Department of Health and Social Services, Northern Ireland

Table 7.15 Drinking habits: by sex, 1978 and 1982

Great Britain Percentages and numbers

	Males		Females	
	1978	1982	1978	1982
Type of drinker *(percentages)*				
Abstainer	*5*	*6*	*11*	*12*
Occasional	*9*	*10*	*25*	*23*
Infrequent light	*11*	*12*	*19*	*20*
Frequent light	*34*	*37*	*39*	*40*
Moderate	*15*	*14*	*4*	*4*
Heavier	*25*	*21*	*2*	*1*
Sample size (= 100%) (numbers)	10,015	8,780	11,650	10,185

Persons aged 18 or over only. See Appendix, Part 7: General Household Survey.

Source: General Household Survey, 1978 and 1982

Table 7.18 Narcotic drugs – new addicts notified[1]: by age and sex

United Kingdom Numbers

	Age							Total
	Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-49	50 or over	Not known	
Males								
1973	149	334	89	23	20	24	5	644
1976	61	315	251	55	35	20	8	745
1981	141	544	511	269	78	15	49	1,607
1982	197	676	593	323	118	16	53	1,976
1983	402	1,011	766	440	192	38	130	2,979
1984	584	1,334	958	570	257	22	115	3,840
Females								
1973	41	79	20	7	8	8	0	163
1976	40	100	55	15	10	12	7	239
1981	91	225	186	84	18	14	23	641
1982	113	271	233	113	41	12	34	817
1983	170	446	315	150	59	18	49	1,207
1984	214	618	405	205	63	19	51	1,575

[1] New addicts notified to the Home Office during the year. See Appendix, Part 7: Narcotic drugs.

Source: Home Office

Table 10.1 Time use in a typical week: by economic status, Spring 1985

Great Britain

Hours

	Full-time employees		Part time employees		Housewives	Retired people
	Males	Females	Males	Females		
Weekly hours spent on:						
Employment and travel[2]	45.0	40.8	24.3	22.2		
Essential activities[3]	33.1	45.1	48.8	61.3	76.6	49.8
Sleep	56.4	57.5	56.6	57.0	59.2	60.2
Free time	33.5	24.6	38.3	27.5	32.2	58.0
Free time per weekday	2.6	2.1	4.5	3.1	4.2	7.9
Free time per weekend day	10.2	7.2	7.8	5.9	5.6	9.1

[1] Excludes the self-employed.

[2] Travel to and from place of work.

[3] Essential domestic work and personal care. This includes cooking, essential shopping, child care, eating meals, washing, and getting up and going to bed.

Source: Leisure Futures, Autumn 1985, *The Henley Centre for Forecasting*

Table 10.2 Participation in selected social and cultural activities: by sex and age, 1983

Great Britain

Percentages and numbers

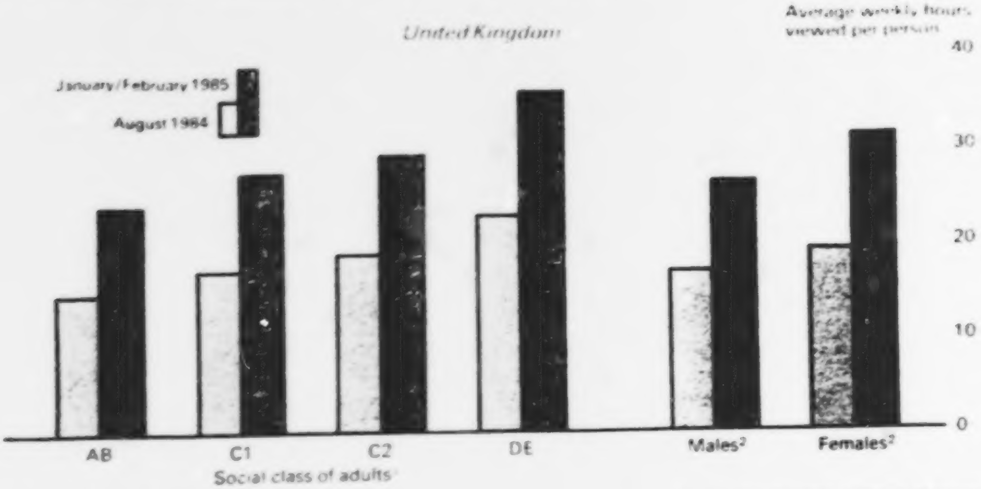
	Males					Females				
	16-19	20-34	35-59	60 or over	All aged 16 or over	16-19	20-34	35-59	60 or over	All aged 16 or over
Percentage in each age group engaging in each activity in the 4 weeks before interview										
Open air outings										
Seaside	*4*	*7*	*8*	*5*	*7*	*8*	*10*	*8*	*5*	*8*
Country	*1*	*2*	*3*	*3*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*3*	*3*	*3*
Parks	*2*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*3*	*8*	*3*	*2*	*4*
Entertainment, social, and cultural activities										
Going to the cinema	*17*	*13*	*5*	*1*	*7*	*25*	*13*	*5*	*2*	*8*
Visiting historic buildings	*6*	*8*	*9*	*7*	*8*	*6*	*9*	*10*	*7*	*8*
Going to the theatre/opera/ballet	*2*	*4*	*4*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*5*	*7*	*4*	*5*
Going to museums/art galleries	*2*	*3*	*3*	*3*	*3*	*3*	*4*	*4*	*2*	*3*
.. nateur music/drama	*6*	*4*	*3*	*2*	*3*	*6*	*3*	*3*	*2*	*3*
Attending leisure classes	*1*	*1*	*2*	*1*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*2*	*2*
Going to fairs/amusement arcades	*4*	*2*	*1*	*-*	*1*	*5*	*3*	*1*	*-*	*2*
Going out for a meal[2]	*39*	*47*	*42*	*31*	*41*	*44*	*46*	*44*	*29*	*40*
Going out for a drink[2]	*68*	*82*	*65*	*41*	*64*	*72*	*67*	*49*	*18*	*46*
Dancing	*25*	*13*	*9*	*4*	*10*	*41*	*15*	*11*	*4*	*12*
Home-based activities										
Listening to records/tapes[2]	*93*	*81*	*65*	*40*	*65*	*94*	*80*	*67*	*32*	*62*
Gardening[2]	*20*	*39*	*58*	*59*	*50*	*13*	*36*	*49*	*37*	*39*
Needlework/knitting[2]	*3*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*34*	*49*	*54*	*44*	*48*
House repairs/DIY[2]	*31*	*55*	*61*	*39*	*51*	*12*	*31*	*30*	*13*	*24*
Reading books[2]	*44*	*49*	*51*	*51*	*50*	*62*	*62*	*62*	*59*	*61*
Sample size (= 100%) (numbers)	722	2,314	3,509	2,199	8,744	727	2,650	3,841	3,088	10,306

[1] Annual averages of participation of people aged 16 or over.

[2] The high participation levels are partly attributable to the fact that these items were prompted (see Appendix, Part 10: General Household Survey).

Source: General Household Survey, 1983

Chart 10.4 Television viewing: by social class and by sex



[1] See Appendix, Part 6: Social class: IPA definition.

[2] Persons aged 4 or over.

Source: Broadcasting Audience Research Board; Audits of Great Britain

Table 10.11 Participation in selected sporting activities: by socio-economic group and by sex, 1983

Great Britain

Percentages and numbers

	Professional, employers and managers	Intermediate and junior non-manual	Skilled manual and own account non-professional	Semi-skilled and unskilled manual[3]	Full-time students	All persons	All males	All females
Percentage in each group engaging in each activity in the 4 weeks before interview								
Swimming, public outdoor pools[4]	1	1	1		2	1	1	1
Swimming, other outdoor[4]	5	4	3	2	6	3	3	3
Swimming indoor[4]	9	10	5	4	17	7	7	7
Fishing	2	1	4	2	4	2	4	-
Sailing	1		-		1		1	
Football	3	2	4	1	10	3	6	
Rugby	1				3	-	1	0
Golf	7	2	2	1	3	2	4	1
Cricket	1	-	1	-	2	1	1	
Tennis	2	2	1	-	6	1	1	1
Athletics, outdoor (field and track)	3	2	2	1	8	2	3	1
Keep fit/yoga	2	6	1	2	2	3	1	5
Gymnastics/athletics, indoor	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	-
Badminton	4	3	1	1	10	2	2	2
Squash	6	3	2	1	8	3	4	1
Table tennis	2	1	1	1	9	1	2	1
Darts	6	5	10	7	12	7	11	4
Billiards/snooker	9	5	13	6	18	8	15	2
Ten-pin bowling/bowls, indoor	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Horse riding	1	1	-	-	3	1	-	1
Rambling, hiking	1	1	-		1	1	1	-
Walking (2 miles or more)	24	23	16	14	18	18	19	17
Cycling	2	2	1	1	6	2	2	2
Sample size (= 100%) (numbers)	2,390	5,628	4,108	5,653	550	19,050	8,744	10,306

[1] Annual averages of participation of people aged 16 or over.

[2] Full time students are covered separately.

[3] Includes armed forces, persons with inadequately described occupations, and persons who have never worked. These are excluded from the analysis by socio-economic group.

[4] Because there is some overlap between the categories, these figures may slightly over estimate the total percentages participating in swimming.

[5] Excludes rambling, hill or fell walking, and hiking.

Source: General Household Survey, 1983

UNIVERSITIES

TOTAL ENROLMENTS

1985 AGED (As at 31 Aug)	FULL-TIME & SANDWICH (Home & Overseas)						PART-TIME					
	ENGLAND UNIVERSITIES			GB UNIVERSITIES			ENGLAND UNIVERSITIES			GB UNIVERSITIES		
	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
POST GRADUATES												
16 18 Years	2	2	4	2	2	4	-	-	-	1	-	1
19	7	2	9	16	5	21	0	2	2	1	8	9
20	159	94	253	238	166	404	5	5	10	9	12	21
21 24	12522	6740	19262	15320	8425	23745	2080	1050	3130	2542	1353	3895
25+	16507	6890	23397	20341	8044	28385	14597	7807	22404	17551	9156	26707
TOTAL	29197	13728	42925	35917	16642	52559	16682	8864	25546	20104	10529	30633
UNDER GRADUATES												
Under 16 18 Years	20397	14504	34906	28266	21143	49409	7	11	18	120	285	405
19	27739	19769	47508	34646	25533	60179	42	62	104	143	268	411
20	28539	20096	48635	34922	25616	60538	138	181	319	234	403	637
21 24	27596	17869	45492	35436	23104	58540	344	331	675	541	598	1139
25+	5386	4756	10142	7856	6400	14256	1330	1631	2961	1669	2203	3872
TOTAL	109657	77026	186683	141126	101796	242922	1861	2216	4077	2707	3757	6464

PUPILS IN SCHOOLS

Table SA00
Pupils by age at 31 August
January 1986
Variation 108
ENGLAND

FULL-TIME	PRIMARY	MIDDLE DEEMED PRIMARY	TOTAL PRIMARY	MIDDLE DEEMED SECONDARY	SECONDARY	TOTAL SECONDARY	TOTAL PRIMARY MIDDLE & SECONDARY
Aged							
5-10	1,435,777	56,360	1,492,137	50,446	349	50,795	1,542,932
11-15 GIRLS	7,037	19,666	26,703	58,546	1,404,711	1,463,257	1,489,960
16-19	-	-	-	-	155,284	155,284	155,284
Aged							
5-10	1,502,311	58,646	1,560,957	53,047	344	53,391	1,614,348
11-15 BOYS	7,540	20,876	28,416	61,921	1,454,496	1,516,417	1,544,833
16-19			-	-	149,373	149,373	149,373

AS AT NOVEMBER 1985

STUDENT NUMBERS IN PUBLIC SECTOR HIGHER EDUCATION GIVEN BY BROAD SUBJECT : Advanced and Non-Advanced Further Education (excluding Universities)

GROUP, AGE AND SEX

	Student Count											
	MEN						WOMEN					
	16-18	19	20	21-24	25+	TOTAL	16-18	19	20	21-24	25+	TOTAL
Education	59980	9804	7326	19475	41635	138220	78878	14789	12441	30860	75766	2127
Medicine, Dentistry and Health	872	607	704	1895	2889	6967	12272	2418	1947	3803	7258	276
Engineering and Technology	152982	41746	28162	48685	52102	323677	6473	1916	1501	2929	4072	168
Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Studies	10977	2127	1748	2315	2111	19278	2067	509	431	690	1166	48
Science	11517	7205	6944	12175	9959	47800	5642	4094	3966	5582	4919	242
Social Administrative and Business Studies	28954	13444	12618	29696	41799	126511	75635	17124	14654	32902	52767	1930
Architecture and other Prof/Voc Subjects	17613	3301	3056	6933	10919	41822	53256	5249	3756	6059	15987	843
Language, Literature and Area Studies	372	393	478	1275	6024	8542	2246	2021	1709	3105	7916	169
Arts other than Languages	515	947	1125	1580	1923	6090	1137	1796	2060	2080	3137	102
Music, Drama and Visual Arts	7940	3885	3442	5607	3270	24144	12307	5519	4895	6510	4322	335
	52150	4525	4364	16885	145379	223303	55854	7447	7259	24854	299030	3944
TOTAL SUBJECT	343872	87984	69967	146521	318010	966354	305767	62882	54619	119374	476340	10189

AS AT NOVEMBER 1985

STUDENT NUMBERS IN PUBLIC SECTOR HIGHER EDUCATION GIVEN BY BROAD SUBJECT : ADVANCED AND NON-ADVANCED FURTHER EDUCATION (excluding Universities)

GROUP, AGE AND SEX

	Student Count					
	MEN AND WOMEN					
	16-18	19	20	21-24	25+	TOTAL
Education	138858	24593	19767	50335	117401	350954
Medicine, Dentistry and Health	13144	3025	2651	5698	10147	34665
Engineering and Technology	159455	43662	29663	51614	56174	340568
Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Studies	15044	2636	2179	3005	3277	24141
Science	17159	11299	10910	17757	14878	72003
Social, Administrative and Business Studies	104589	30568	27272	62598	94566	319593
Architecture and other Prof/Voc Subjects	70869	8550	6812	12992	26906	126129
Language, Literature and Area Studies	2618	2414	2187	4380	13940	25539
Arts other than Languages	1652	2743	3185	3660	5060	16300
Music, Drama and Visual Arts	20247	9404	8337	12117	7592	57697
	108004	11972	11623	41739	444409	617747
TOTAL SUBJECTS	649639	150866	124586	265895	794350	1985336

WOMEN IN HER BRITANNIC MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC SERVICE (DECEMBER 1986)

		No of women		No of men		No of women as % of total in Grade
Senior Grades	(Ambassador)	2		153		1.3%
Grade 4	(Counsellor)	12		270		4.3%
Grade 5A]		18		231		7.2%
Grade 5E]	First Secretary	7		180		3.8%
Grade 6]		23		270		7.8%
Grade 7]	Second Secretary	21		75		21.9%
Grade 7E]		75		394		16.0%
Grade 8]	Third Secretary	8		24		22.2%
Grade 9]		252		707		33.2%
Grade 10]	Attache	285		245		53.8%
Total of women career diplomats		703	Total of men career diplomats	2,549	Total of women career diplomats as % of total (3,252)	21.6%
Research Officers		21		35		37.5%
Legal Advisers		4		18		18%
Secretaries		624		-		100%
Total no of women in the Diplomatic Service		1,352	Total no of men in the Diplomatic Service	2,602	Total no of women in Diplomatic Service as % of total complement	34.2%

RIGHTS OF PREGNANT WOMEN EMPLOYEES

Article 11.2 (a) and (b)

Under the provisions of the Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978 all pregnant women employees have the right to paid time-off from work to attend antenatal care appointments. In addition women employees who have worked continuously, generally for the same employer, for certain qualifying periods may have three other rights against their employer: i.e.

(a) to complain to an industrial tribunal of unfair dismissal if they are dismissed because they are pregnant or for reasons connected with their pregnancy;

(b) to nine-tenths of weekly pay less an amount equivalent to the state maternity allowance for the first six weeks of maternity leave if the baby is due before 21 June 1987;

(c) to return to work at any time up to 29 weeks from the week in which the baby is born.

The qualifying period for the right to complain of unfair dismissal under this Act was increased from 1 to 2 years for employees in firms of more than 20 employees on 1 June 1985. There is another avenue for complaint. On 14 June 1985 an Employment Appeal Tribunal ruled in the cases of Hayes v Malleable Working Men's Club and Institute and Maughan v NE London Magistrates Court Committee, that dismissal on grounds associated with pregnancy could be unlawful sex discrimination. There is no qualifying period for complaints under the Sex Discrimination Act.

From 6 April 1987 a new scheme of maternity payments "Statutory Maternity Pay" replaces the right in the employment legislation and the state maternity allowance, for employees whose expected date of confinement is on or after 21 June 1987. This scheme was introduced in the Social Security Act 1986.

On ratification the United Kingdom reserved the right to apply any non-discriminatory requirement for a qualifying period of employment or insurance for the application of the provisions contained in Article 11(2).

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT - HOURS OF WORK

Article 11 (b) and (c)

Conditions of employment - hours of work

The Factories Act 1961, the Mines and Quarries Act 1954 and the Hours of Employment (Conventions) Act 1936 contain provisions which restrict the hours and times which women may work in industrial undertakings. They prevent women doing shift work (including nightwork) and extensive overtime - except under exemptions granted by the Secretary of State for Employment, or on his behalf by the Health and Safety Executive.

The UK Government considered that the restrictions were discriminatory, outdated, had little practical effect and were therefore no longer necessary. Employers who wish to employ women at normally prohibited times can and do apply to the Health and Safety Executive for special exemption orders which are usually granted. The legislation discriminates against women who may be prevented from accepting work which will give them access to greater skills, experience and ultimately pay.

The Sex Discrimination Act 1986 contains provisions to repeal these restrictions. Its key provisions include.

- Women will have the right to work to the same age as their male colleagues, and to claim unfair dismissal up to the same age.

- Restrictions on adult women's hours and times of work in manufacturing will be lifted.

- The exemptions in the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 for small firms and for small partnerships in respect of their treatment of partners are removed, and the exemption for private households is narrowed, while maintaining the principle of respect for private life.

- Unlawfully discriminatory provisions in non-legally binding collective agreements and rules are void.

- The need to obtain Ministerial designation before running single sex training courses is removed - see para 32.

A Commencement Order was laid on 16 January 1987 which lifts the restrictions on women's hours of work in the Factories Act 1961 and the Mines and Quarries Act 1954 with effect from 27 February 1987. The prohibition on women working at night in the Hours of Employment (Conventions) Act 1936 will be retained at least until February 1988. [Because of the UK's obligations under the European Social Charter, Article 8(4)(a) of the Charter requires Contracting Parties to regulate the employment of women workers on night work in industrial employment. The Article may be denounced, the next date to do so being February 1988].

19 237/583 (K)

WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT: FACT SHEET

Some Facts about women

1. 11 million women - economically active.*
   43% of the civilian labour force - women.
   1 in 4 of the self employed - women.
   UK has the second highest (in Europe) participation rate for women.
   Only UK (in Europe) has a lower unemployment rate for women than for men.
   44% of women employees work part-time.* ø
   64% of working women are married.
   Women's average earnings - 74% of mens (April 1986).
   897,971 women claimed benefit (UK unadjusted - July 1987)

Women in the Labour Force (GB)

STATS C4

2. Married women were
   - 12% of labour force in 1951
   - about 25% in 1981

   But since 1977 this growth has levelled off.

   Estimates from the 1984 General Household Survey show that for men aged 16-64, women aged 16-59.

   - 61% of married women)
     66% of non-married women) were in work or seeking work
     88% of men)
     48% mothers of dependent children were working of whom
     69% were part-time

FOOTNOTE Part-Time workers - people working for not more than 30 hours a week
*Source: Labour Force Survey

ø does not include the self-employed.

3. Female in Employment (1000s)

GB (Seasonally Adjusted)

	All		Part-time	
	SELF EMPLOYED	EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT	SELF EMPLOYED	EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT
June 1978	364	9,152		3,653
June 1979	348	9,435	145	3,838
June 1980	383	9,421	195	3,914
June 1981	417	9,087	245	3,795
June 1982	462	8,966	255	3,708
June 1983	506	8,882	267	3,761
June 1984	586	9,104	311	3,871
June 1985	628	9,295	331	3,977
September 1985	629	9,345	328	4,026
December 1985	630	9,376	326	4,040
March 1986	631	9,414	323	4.087
June 1986	631	9,446	319	4,121
September 1986	642	9,481	323	4,143
December 1986	653	9,539	327	4,164
March 1987	664	9,571	331	4,196

4. Persons in employment by employment status by sex and marital status for women

(4.	1951 Census (1)		1981 Census (2)		1981 LFS (2)		1986 LFS (2)	
All Women	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent
Total	6,826	100.0	9,151	100.0	9,426	100.0	9,893	100.0
Employees	6,580	96.4	8,768	95.8	8,975	95.2	9,214	93.1
- full-time	5,795	84.9	5,351	58.5	5,200	55.2	5,070	51.2 -(5)
- part-time (3)	784	11.5	3,417	37.3	3,775	40.1	4,138	41.8 -(5)
Self-employed	246	3.6	383	4.2	451	4.8	679	6.9
Total as % of all persons in employment		30.8		39.9		40.3		42.2
Total as % of all women		34.1		42.2		43.1		44.4

	1951 Census (1)		1981 Census (2)		1981 LFS (2)		1986 LFS (2)	
	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent
Married Women								
Total in employment	2,627	100.0	5,997	100.0	6,174	100.0	6,746	100.0
Employees	2,513	95.7	5,701	95.1	5,809	93.2	6,207	92.0
- full-time	1,878	71.5	2,739	45.7	2,612	42.3	2,792	41.4-(5)
- part-time	635	24.2	2,962	49.4	3,145	50.9	3,407	50.5-(5)
Self-employed	113	4.3	296	4.9	365	5.9	540	8.10
Total as % of all persons in employment		11.9		26.2		26.4		28.8
Total as % of all married women		21.5		45.0		45.5		47.8

	1951 Census (1)		1981 Census (2)		1981 LFS (2)		1986 LFS	
	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent	Thousands	Per Cent
Men								
Total in employment	15,309	100.0	13,765	100.0	13,938	100.0	13,536	100.0
Employees	14,407	94.1	12,234	88.9	12,212	98.6	11,491	84.9
- full-time(3)	14,360	93.8	11,940	86.7	11,639	95.3	11,034	81.5-(5)
- part-time(3)	47	.3	294	2.1	409	3.3	450	3.3-(5)
Self-employed	902	5.9	1,531	11.1	1,726	12.4	2,045	15.1
Total as % of all persons in employment		69.2		60.1		59.7		57.8
Total as % of all men		85.7		69.0		69.4		66.1

Thousands

	1951 Census (1)	1981 Census (2)	1981 LFS (2)	1986 LFS
All persons in employment	22,135	22,915	23,365	23,429
Population:-				
Men	17,862	19,961	20,087	20,762
Women	20,045	21,700	21,852	22,414
Married Women	12,226	13,322	13,559	13,910

Footnotes:

(1) Aged 15 and over.
(2) Aged 16 and over.
(3) 30 hours or less per week.
(4) Excluding all on Government Schemes.
(5) Self assessment

Earnings[ø] (GB) STATS A2

5. Average hourly earnings (excluding overtime)
April 1986 = 74.1% of mens
1975 = 72.1% of mens [Equal Pay Act in operation]
1970 = 63.1% of men [Equal Pay Act passed]

Women's average earnings have been relatively stable since 1975 remaining lower than men's.

Unemployment: July 1987 STATS B1

6. 897,971 or 7.9% (UK unadjusted) women claimed benefit at UBO's
compared to 2,008,482 or 12.2% (" ") men

It is often alleged that the claimant figures seriously undercount unemployed women because many do not claim benefit. Unemployment estimates from the 1986 Labour Force Survey, based on the number of people without jobs seeking work, give a female unemployment rate of 9.9% per cent (as a percentage of the economically active population) in the Spring of 1986, which was lower than the male rate of 11.1 per cent. It is estimated from the survey that about 590,000 women were seeking work but not claiming benefits, many of them seeking part-time work. These were, however, partly offset by some 480,000 women included in the claimant count who were either without jobs but not seeking work in the survey reference week (390,000) or who said they had a paid job (90,000).

7. Male unemployment is currently falling at a faster rate than female unemployment. In the 3 months to July of this year, the seasonally adjusted percentage rate of unemployment decreased by -0.5 percentage points on the previous three months for males, while the female rate decreased by -0.4 percentage points.

[ø] Source - New Earning's Survey

Industrial and occupational distribution (GB)

8. 81% of all female workers are in Service industry divisions
   91% of female part-time employees and
   74% of female full-time employees
   12% (9% male): banking, finance, insurance, business services and leasing
   25% (17% male): distribution, hotels and catering and repairs
   42% (20% of male): other services including, medical educational public administration recreational and personal services.

9. About 30% of women work in "clerical and related occupations
   26% in managerial and professional (nearly half in either nursing or teaching
   23% in catering, cleaning, hairdressing and other personal services
   10% in selling
   38% of female part-time workers are in the personal services category compared to
   10% of full-time workers
   37% of females work full-time in the clerical and related occupations compared to
   22% of part-time workers

Enterprise (GB)

10. In 1986 - 679,000* women were self employed
    - women were 25%* of all self employed
    219,000* self employed women, also had staff of their own

Women in Public Life+

11. In 1986 - 0.3% of Companies were chaired by women
    - 6.2% of Senior Managers were women
    - 4.3% of MP's are women

Recent Employment Trends[x]

STATS C3

12. 917,000 increase in women in employment (including self employed and HM Forces) between March 1983 and March 1987.

307,000 increase in number of men in the same period

5% increase in women working full-time

13% increase in part-time

x Seasonally Adjusted - Great Britain

International Comparisons

i) Participation Rates

STATS D3

13 1984+ UK had the second highest female participation rate in EEC. 58% women between 14-64 were in the labour force.

1984

Women aged 14-64

(Male comparison in brackets)

	(a) Labour force as percentage of total in age group	(b) Unemployed as percentage of labour force
Germany (FR)	49.9 (79.4)	8.3 (5.7)
France	55.4 (77.4)	12.2 (7.7)
Italy	39.1 (77.1)	16.1 (6.7)
Netherlands	na (na)	na (na)
Belgium	44.0 (73.0)	18.4 (8.1)
United Kingdom	57.5 (82.8)	10.1 (11.6)
Ireland	38.0 (80.8)	17.9 (16.6)
Denmark	72.0 (83.4)	10.3 (8.0)
Greece	39.1 (79.6)	12.6 (6.2)

ii) Employment Growth

STATS D3

14. Between 1984 and 1985 the rise in female employment in the Community was the largest since the Community was set up.

Between 1983 and 1985 female employment grew by more than 1 million and the United Kingdom accounted for nearly half of this rise.

Total Female employment in EC countries

	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85 (1000s)	1985-86 (1000s)
United Kingdom	+ 21	-307	- 78	- 35	+301	+233	+ 153
Germany (FR)	+168	- 11	- 95	-128	+ 62	+ 91	+ 128
France	+ 53	+ 18	+104	+ 60	+ 28	+ 72	+ 23
Italy	+185	+ 47	+ 23	+ 70	+ 68	+ 84	+ 146
Netherlands	+101	+ 74	+ 42	+ 20	+ 19	+ 80	na
Belgium	+ 14	- 5	nc	+ 1	+ 16	+ 26	na
Luxembourg*	nc	+ 3	- 1	+ 1	+ 1	+ 1	na
Ireland	+ 12	+ 4	+ 8	+ 1	- 7	- 8	na
Denmark	+ 4	+ 8	+ 14	+ 13	+ 30	+ 21	
Greece	+ 10	+112	- 34	+ 84	+ 21	+ 40	na
EC TOTAL	+568	- 57	- 17	+ 87	+539	+640	na

Note: nc - no change
na - not available

Source: 'Employment Gazette' for UK, OECD 'Labour Force Statistics 1965-1985' and 'Quarterly Labour Force Statistics' for other EC Countries.

15. Part-time as a percentage of all

	1979 %	1981 %	1983 %	1984 %
Italy	11	10	9	10
Greece	-	7	12	9
Ireland	13	-	15	14
Luxembourg	18	-	17	15
Belgium	17	16	20	20
France	17	17	20	21
Germany	28	29	30	29
UK	39	40	41	44
Netherlands*	32	49	50	na
Denmark	46	47	44	37

Source: Labour Force Sample Surveys, 1979, 1981 1983 and 1984

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* The definition of part-time employment was changed in the Netherlands in 1980.

In 1984, only 9% of Greece's female employed workforce were in part-time work, whereas in the UK, 44% of women in employment were working part-time. Generally, those countries with low levels of female participation also have low proportions of women working part-time (eg Italy, Ireland and Greece). Conversely, Denmark and the UK, with the highest levels of labour market participation, also have the highest levels of part-time working. However, it is too simplistic to assume that there is a direct relationship for all countries - in France, female participation rates were 55% in 1984, not far behind the UK, while part-time rates were only 21%.

LINK 355/4/87 (2) JM

WOMEN IN SELF-EMPLOYMENT: FACTSHEET

A TOTALS (1)

	ALL SELF EMPLOYED	MEN	WOMEN	WOMEN SELF EMPLOYED AS % OF ALL SELF EMPLOYED	WOMEN SELF EMPLOYED AS % OF WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT
Spring 1981	2, 177,000	1,726,000	451,000	20.7	4.7
Spring 1986	2,723,000	2,045,000	679,000	24.9	6.8
INCREASE	+ 25.1%	+ 18.5%	+ 50.6%		

B SELF EMPLOYED WITH EMPLOYEES (1)

	ALL SELF EMPLOYED	MEN	WOMEN
Spring 1981	839,000	683,000	156,000
Spring 1986	998,000	779,000	219,000
INCREASE	+ 19.0%	+ 14.1%	+ 40.4%

C. SECTOR (1) % of self employed women by sector:

39.2% Distribution, Hotels, Catering and Repairs
32.3% Other Services, (Personal services, Health, Education).
9.8% Banking, Financial, Insurance and Business Services
5.2% Agriculture
7.7% Other manufacturing

D. OCCUPATION (1) % of self employed women by occupation:

40.5% Managerial
11.4% Catering, Cleaning, Hairdressing etc

E. INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS (2) % of the self employed who are women (latest available data)

30%	Finland
30%	Canada
27%	USA
24.9%	GB
25%	Sweden
21%	France
20%	Germany
17%	Netherlands

F. OTHER STATISTICS (2)

(a) Part-time work - 28.1% of self-employed women work under 16 hours/week
(cf: 3.1% of men)
49.2% of self employed women work under 30 hours/week

(b) Regions - self employed women form 9.3% of all women's employment in the South West but only 4% in Scotland.

G. ENTERPRISE ALLOWANCE SCHEME

- 25% of entrants are women compared to 10% in pilot phase
- Main Industry sectors . Agriculture 2.7%
  . Manufacturing 20.3%
  . Construction 2.8%
  . Distribution 22.2%
  . Services 52%
- 65% of women businesses in operation 6 months after their year on the scheme ended
- (compared to 78% of men).

ANNEX I

PETITIONS FOR DIVORCE PRESENTED UNDER SECTION 1 OF THE MATRIMONIAL CAUSES ACT 1973

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
er of petitions presented under of the 1973 Act.	176162	181853	163428	178940	190480
er of petitions presented by men	47256	47708	45150	48940	52090
er of petitions presented by women	128906	134145	123280	130000	138390

ANNEX J

Section 25 of The Matrimonial Causes Act 1973 (c. 18)

Matters to which court is to have regard in deciding how to exercise its powers under ss.23, 24 and 24A.

25. (1) It shall be the duty of the court in deciding whether to exercise its powers under section 23, 24 or 24A above and, if so, in what manner, to have regard to all the circumstances of the case, first consideration being given to the welfare while a minor of any child of the family who has not attained the age of eighteen.

(2) As regards the exercise of the powers of the court under section 23(1)(a), (b) or (c), 24 or 24A above in relation to a party to the marriage, the court shall in particular have regard to the following matters-

(a) the income, earning capacity, property and other financial resources which each of the parties to the marriage has or is likely to have in the foreseeable future, including in the case of earning capacity any increase in that capacity which it would be in the opinion of the court be reasonable to expect a party to the marriage to take steps to acquire;

(b) the financial needs, obligations and responsibilities which each of the parties to the marriage has or is likely to have in the foreseeable future;

(c) the standard of living enjoyed by the family before the breakdown of the marriage;

(d) the age of each party to the marriage and the duration of the marriage;

(e) any physical or mental disability of either of the parties to the marriage;

(f) the contributions which each of the parties has made or is likely in the foreseeable future to make to the welfare of the family, including any contribution by looking after the home or caring for the family;

(g) the conduct of each of the parties, if that conduct is such that it would in the opinion of the court be inequitable to disregard it;

(h) in the case of proceedings for divorce or dissolution or annulment of the marriage, that party will lose the chance of acquiring.

(3) As regards the exercise of the powers of the court under section 23(1)(d), (e) or (f), (2) or (4), 24 or 24A above in relation to a child of the family, the court shall in particular have regard to the following matters -

(a) the financial needs of the child;

(b) the income, earning capacity (if any), property and other financial resources of the child;

(c) any physical or mental disability of the child;

(d) the manner in which he was being and in which the parties to the marriage expected him to be educated or trained;

(e) the considerations mentioned in relation to the parties to the marriage in paragraphs (a), (b), (c) and (e) of subsection (2) above.

(4) As regards the exercise of the powers of the court under section 23(1)(d), (e) or (f), (2) or (4), 24 or 24A above against a party to a marriage in favour of a child of the family who is not the child of that party, the court shall also have regard -

(a) to whether that party assumed any responsibility for the child's maintenance, and, if so, to the extent to which, and the basis upon which, that party assumed such responsibility and to the length of time for which that party discharged such responsibility;

(b) to whether in assuming and discharging such responsibility that party did so knowing that the child was not his or her own;

(c) to the liability of any other person to maintain the child.

Annex K

CHAPTER 7: EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES

7.1 The Commission is firmly committed to promoting equality of access to, participation in, and benefit from its programmes by all people regardless of race, religion, sex, marital status or disability. It will continue to implement its equal opportunities policy throughout the Plan period. This Chapter looks mainly at equal opportunities for women and ethnic minorities; services for helping disabled people into open or sheltered employment were covered in paragraphs 3.18 to 3.23.

7.2 The Commission will continue to explore why people who could benefit do not take part in its programmes and will try to remove the obstacles that stop them from doing so in order to ensure that all sections of the community participate in MSC programmes according to their needs. To monitor this we will improve our ability to compare the take-up of our programmes by different groups area by area. Further measures will be taken to establish "outreach" into the community, encourage local communities to come forward with schemes meeting the needs they themselves perceive as important and to encourage people to come forward to benefit from opportunities provided by the Commission.

CENTRAL INITIATIVES

7.3 Regular meetings will continue between the Chairman of the Commission and the Chairmen of the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) and the Commission for Racial Equality (CRE); close and continuous contact will be maintained at official level to seek specialist help in pursuing the Commission's equal opportunities policy. Specific advice will be sought on various aspects of policy implementation such as marketing, publicity, positive action, monitoring and evaluation. Consultation will also continue with appropriate interest groups such as NACRO (the National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders) and NCVO (the National Council for Voluntary Organisations).

7.4 The Commission has set up an Action Group on Equal Opportunities comprising officials from all operating groups and divisions and local and obstacles, aimed at ensuring their participation rates fully reflect the client group in each area throughout the country.

The Commission will continue its work with the Government's Joint Forum on Refugees which aims to address the difficulties experienced by refugees in making the successful transition to living and working in Great Britain. In discussion with the relevant agencies proposals have been made for several initiatives designed to develop provision in a more relevant and co-ordinated way. In particular initiatives will be taken to translate letters, provide guidance to local office staff and improve the relevance of programme and service delivery.

7.5 The Chairman, Director and senior officials will communicate regularly with staff to remind them of their responsibilities on equal opportunities, and their duties in this area. The visible commitment of senior staff will be used to encourage commitment at all levels in the Commission.

7.6 Each group or division of the Commission will continue to be required to draw up an agreed list of objectives for ethnic minority participation in its programmes. Performance against these objectives will be assessed in an annual review.

7.7 Paragraphs 7.8-7.30 describe the action which will be taken by each of the Commission's Groups to promote equal opportunities over the Plan period.

EMPLOYMENT AND ENTERPRISE GROUP

Jobcentres

7.8 Jobcentres have an important role to play in promoting equality of opportunity in recruitment to jobs and employment and enterprise schemes, and in advising jobseekers of their rights under equal opportunities legislation. Employers are making progress but jobcentre staff will continue to challenge those who attempt to impose unlawful discriminatory restrictions on vacancies, report to the Equal Opportunities Commission

7.9 The Commission has started and intends to continue to conduct annual surveys of the ethnic origin of those who use selected jobcentres. These will monitor the numbers of black and Asian people using jobcentres and their success in obtaining the services available; they will also monitor the needs of ethnic minorities, so that special services can be considered eg outreach workers and the translation of information into other languages.

7.10 The Commission recognises that a major factor in implementing its equal opportunities policy will be the attitudes and actions of its jobcentre staff. To help staff deal effectively with equal opportunity issues the Commission will maintain a strategy which includes comprehensive written instructions, staff training videos, distance learning packages, training courses and articles in staff newspapers. In addition jobcentre managers in areas with ethnic minority communities will be encouraged to take local initiatives to make their services more accessible; examples include "surgeries" in local community centres, translation of information materials and English classes held on jobcentre premises.

7.11 A multilingual public access system currently under development is due to go on trial which will allow ethnic minority groups to obtain Gateway information (see paragraph 3.9) in their own language.

7.12 Positive steps will be taken within the Commission's employment programmes to ensure that there is equality of opportunity for those in the eligible client groups irrespective of race, sex, marital status, disability or religion.

Restart

7.13 A cohort study of a representative sample of people passing through the Restart Programme from late 1987 will give information on how the various groups fare under, and take options under, the Programme. The study will also "follow" interviewees through Jobclubs and Restart courses. Information is collected about ethnic origin of all Restart course participants and will also be collected for all Jobclub members from April 1987.

Community Programme

7.14 In the Community Programme guidance will be issued to providers and staff, on the role of Area Manpower Boards and equal opportunities will be given appropriate priority within the planning system. New providers will be sought from within minority communities. Entrants to the Community Programme will be monitored, to ensure that participation by ethnic minority groups is broadly in line with the proportion of such people in the client group. The Commission hopes to target provision more effectively, particularly into inner city areas. The Special Employment Measures Advisory Group will regularly review progress in achieving equality of opportunity in the Programme.

7.15 The Commission will continue to help ethnic groups who face difficulty in meeting the stringent requirements for managerial expertise to run projects. Continued encouragement will be given to ethnic minority groups who wish to sponsor CP schemes. The scope for developing management training for potential CP participants will be extended. Publicity material will be translated into the main ethnic minority languages.

Enterprise Allowance Scheme

7.16 The information about the ethnic origin of Enterprise Allowance Scheme participants, which has been collected on a self assessment basis since April 1986, shows that the ratio of participants from this group is in line with the national proportion of the client group. Currently 26% of entrants to the scheme are women which is slightly above the proportion of women entrepreneurs nationally. Further information will be gathered about these groups and will be used as a basis for developing specific assistance.

Voluntary Projects Programme

7.17 Within the Voluntary Projects Programme information will be collected from April 1987 on the ethnic origin of participants, based on self-assessment. The proportion of entrants with health problems affecting employment will also be recorded. The data will be used to monitor the effectiveness of the Commission's equal opportunities policy within the programme.

Community Industry

7.18 The Board of Community Industry Ltd (in which the Commission for Racial Equality is represented) has taken an active role in the pursuit of equal opportunities and regularly receives reports on progress in implementing its equal opportunities policy.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING GROUP

7.19 The Commission will continue to monitor its training programmes in the light of its commitment to equality of opportunity. Development and demonstration projects will be mounted to encourage training providers to be more responsive to particular needs, for example those of ethnic minority groups seeking to enter occupations in which they are under represented, women returning to work after a career break, or people with specific types of disability. Particular attention will be given to targetting promotion and marketing of training to these groups.

TVEI

7.20 Equal opportunities and the avoidance of sex-stereotyping along with the inclusion in programmes of students with special educational needs are criteria for all TVEI pilot projects and these will remain high priorities under the extension of TVEI. The National Steering Group regularly reviews equal opportunity policy and practice. Education authorities will be required to state their strategies and plans for meeting these criteria. Dissemination of good practice will continue. This will include the publication of reports and a training guide for projects, to be issued in December 1987, which will identify examples of good practice. A development study in a small group of authorities, designed to identify with the needs of ethnic minority students, will begin its research phase in 1987-88. A journal in the TVEI Development series will also focus on a range of equal opportunity issues. Other such opportunities will be taken over the period of the Plan.

YTS

7.21 The Youth Training Board will continue to review equal opportunities within YTS regularly. The Commission has introduced significant changes to the administrative procedures of two year YTS to provide a framework of measures to promote equality of opportunity. Approved Training Organisations (ATOs) are expected to declare and demonstrate a commitment to provide equality of opportunity on the programmes for trainees regardless of sex, race, religion or disability. Organisations will be expected to demonstrate such positive steps, not only in their recruitment procedures but also in their subsequent dealings with trainees during the course of the training programme. The availability of YTS scheme level data to Commission staff and Area Manpower Boards will now enable the progress on achievement of equal opportunities to be monitored more effectively than before. MSC officials will continue to work with Managing Agents to promote equal opportunities once ATO status has been gained. Programme Review Teams will include the monitoring of equal opportunities in their assessments. The YTS Evaluation Programme will also look specifically at the extent to which equality of opportunity has become a reality in YTS.

7.22 Following a unanimous recommendation from the Youth Training Board the Commission has decided that, from early in 1987/88, Areas will establish a guideline for an improvement in the participation rate of ethnic minority young people in employer-led YTS schemes across the area as a whole. The first guideline will be established for a two-year period up to March 1989, and progress will be monitored every 6 months. The Commission has also increased the number of YTS Development Officer posts from 20 to 30. These posts are funded by the Commission and based with local sponsors such as Project Fullemploy, CRE, Business in the Community and Community Relations Councils in areas with a significant ethnic minority population. Their role is to promote YTS within the local ethnic minority community, encourage young people from ethnic minority communities to participate in 2 year YTS and to encourage employers to make greater efforts to recruit a representative cross-section of eligible young people.

7.23 The Commission is also concerned to ensure that all young people can be encouraged to consider the full range of training opportunities open to them, and not just those traditional to their sex. A small programme of schemes, which are either single-sex or have places reserved for one sex, has been set up and the results will be carefully monitored and evaluated. The Commission has also asked Bedfordshire County Council to examine the feasibility of including a period of "job sampling" in its YTS provision, the results of which will begin to become available in 1987/88.

7.24 In order to help those involved in YTS to implement the positive commitment to equal opportunities which is required of all ATO's, other managing agents and work experience providers, an Equal Opportunities Code has been drawn up. The Code brings together practical guidance on equal opportunities and makes positive recommendations for action. The Commission will be keeping the application of the Code under review.

Adult Training

7.25 All adult training programmes aim positively to further equality of opportunity and many have exemptions from standard eligibility rules for the disadvantaged. Within the range of programmes, the Wider Opportunities Training Programme (WOTP) offers particular help to people at a relative disadvantage in the labour market. Training is offered to maintain and improve basic skills including help with literacy, numeracy and English as a second language. Provision is also available on Wider Opportunities for Women courses, designed specifically for women wishing to return to work. These help to update job skills, improve job-hunting techniques, build confidence and sometimes offer job sampling in large companies. The Commission will be looking to see how the schemes within WOTP can be developed to increase their attraction and usefulness to those people who are disadvantaged in the labour market. They will also seek to enhance their role in supplementing programmes and preparing people for other training provision at more advanced levels.

7.26 The Industrial Language Training Service (ILTS) run by local education authorities but funded largely by the Commission, will continue to provide training in communication skills principally for workers from ethnic minority groups. This training will contribute to improved equality of opportunity for people of all ethnic/racial backgrounds in the workplace. There has recently been a consultation exercise about the service and the way it is funded and managed.

7.27 Help will be given for the production of open learning materials suitable for use by women returners, disabled people, and ethnic minorities. Open Learning is of particular benefit to women who, for domestic reasons, are unable to attend a conventional course.

7.28 Training for women in non traditional skills will continue to be developed and consideration given to increasing the use of part-time courses and courses outside normal hours.

7.29 Training for Commission staff in VETG will continue to play an important part in implementing the Commission's equal opportunities policy. action will focus on:

- a two-day staff training module on equal opportunities, which will be mandatory for all VETG local programme staff.

- Instructions for staff on dealing with racial discrimination which are being prepared and will be ready by mid summer 1987.

- a YTS/CRE "checklist" on avoiding discrimination which is issued to all sponsors, managing agents, work experience providers and trainers involved in YTS.

- Guidance on interpreting monitoring information which is being prepared for YTS staff.

- A 'training of trainers' resource package which is being developed for MSC by Avon Accredited Training Centre and should be available in summer 1987 to all ATCs involved in the training of Managing Agents and providers.

SKILLS TRAINING AGENCY

7.30 The Skills Training Agency will maintain its policy of equality of access to Skillcentre training throughout the period. STA will endeavour to promote itself, and its training, in a way that attracts trainees from amongst women, ethnic minorities, and disabled people, especially into training with which they are not historically associated. Efforts will continue to identify and remove obstacles that deter people from those groups from taking up training in Skillcentres.

To this end a number of steps are being taken to ensure that present practises do not unfairly obstruct these groups. In particular, trainability (or ACCESS) testing and instructor recruitment criteria are being critically examined to see whether they are as fair and unbiased as possible. Additionally, monitoring of trainee starts by sex and by ethnic origin has been introduced for trainees on courses purchased by VETG (which is about 90% of all trainee starts). It is hoped that this monitoring will enable STA to identify areas where problems might exist. Staff training to increase awareness of equal opportunity issues, and to provide guidance on equal opportunity legislation, will be developed during the Plan period. A special training module to assist Instructors in equal opportunity matters is being devised. The recently established network of a national and five regional co-ordinators will be used to disseminate good practice.

COMMISSION STAFF

7.31 The Commission, in common with other Government Departments, is committed to a policy of equal opportunities for all its staff; it tries to demonstrate its commitment to equal opportunities by setting a good example to those it is trying to influence. All advertised vacancies carry a positive statement of equal opportunity. Equal Opportunities Officers have been appointed in Head Office and in every Regional Office to help monitor and advise staff on the implementation and development of equal opportunities policies. The Commission will continue to play its full part in Civil Service wide initiatives, and will press for any further steps it considers necessary to ensure full equality of opportunity at work for its employees.

7.32 Following the review of the employment of women in the Civil Service new, more flexible, policies have been introduced aimed at encouraging those staff with domestic responsibilities to remain in, or return to, work with the Commission. The impact of these policies is being monitored by the Commission's Equal Opportunities Officers. The Commission is also monitoring the ethnic origin of its staff and new entrants.

7.33 All MSC regions have an Action Plan in place which is directed at encouraging more applications for staff vacancies from ethnic minority groups and ensuring that opportunities for work in the Commission are brought to the attention of members of local communities.

7.34 The guidelines set out in the Commission's Code of Good Practice on the Employment of Disabled People are now being applied to the Commission's staff and the numbers of registered disabled people recruited and employed are carefully monitored.

7.35 The Commission's policy includes making all staff aware of the need to avoid discrimination. Equal Opportunities will continue to be a core subject on all training courses and induction programmes. A review of equal opportunities training is underway and coverage will be extended during the Plan period. All training in support of personnel and staff development processes has been reviewed; a major development in the early part of the Plan period will be the introduction of a systematic programme of training for staff responsible for recruitment throughout MSC. The equal opportunities elements of job-specific training courses will continue to be subject to regular review over the Plan period.

AREA MANPOWER BOARDS

7.36 The 58 Area Manpower Boards (AMBs) provide MSC with advice and assistance in the planning and delivery of its programmes at the local level. One of their 5 priority tasks (identified in the 1985 review of AMBs) over the plan period will be the promotion of MSC's policy on equal opportunities, and specific guidance has been issued to the Boards as to how this task might be carried out. This includes advice on how to recognise and tackle discriminatory practices, especially indirect ones; monitoring the participation of ethnic minorities in schemes as a step towards assessing the effectiveness of an organisation's equal opportunities policy; and the scope for adopting a pro-active role in promoting equal opportunities. Boards have been asked to co-opt more women and representatives of ethnic minority groups where their interests are not adequately covered by existing Board members. A number of AMB's have established equal opportunity sub-committees.